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HSRC Education Research Programme No. 6 1986

The role of language in Black education

Papers presented at the conference on the role of language in Black education
Pretoria, 17-18 February 1986

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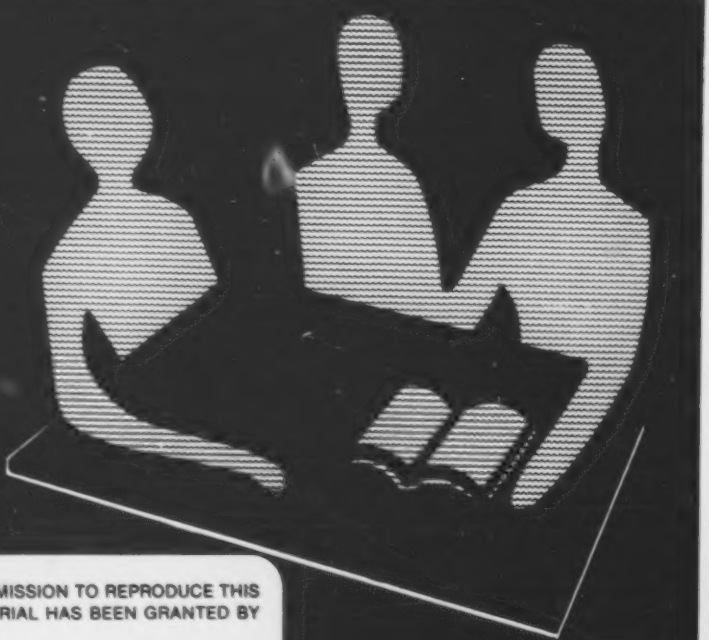

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PREFACE - VOORWOORD

The role of language in Black education has in Southern Africa long been regarded as a matter of critical importance, and has been identified by the Main Committee of the HSRC Education Research Programme as one of its vital research priorities. The gravity of the situation is further highlighted by the fact that in Black education the fifth year is marked by a switch to either English or Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. Research to date has indicated that pupils generally lack sufficient command of the new language medium, and this not surprisingly gives rise to a number of very serious problems.

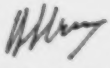
One of the most serious is that pupils are not able to follow the instruction in the new medium, and this leads to a high failure and drop out rate. The problem is perpetuated because they enter tertiary institutions still suffering from this disadvantage. Those who enter the teaching profession eventually have to teach through the medium of the new language, but are inadequately prepared to do so and pass on to their pupils the inadequacies of their own poor performance.

Die bedoeling met hierdie konferensie was om onderwysers, dosente, inspekteurs, amptenare en navorsers bymekaar te bring om probleme te identifiseer, kennis te neem van huidige tendense en die pad vorentoe te verken. 'n Aantal kenners oor 'n wye gebied is gevra om vanuit die perspektief van hulle eie deskundigheid 'n bydrae beskikbaar te stel. Hierdie stukke is voor die konferensie gesirkuleer en tydens die konferensie kortliks toegelig om die bespreking sodoende doeltreffend in te lei. Op hierdie wyse is ook die maksimum tyd vir meer indringende bespreking beskikbaar gestel.

Die gevolg was dat met die konferensie 'n belangrike bydrae gelewer is tot nuwe insigte op die probleemgebied. Meer belangrik was dalk nog die geleentheid wat 'n wye spektrum van betrokkenes gekry het om van hierdie insigte kennis te neem, in die besprekings deel te hê en daarna op besluitnemingsvlak hulle te laat beïnvloed deur die nuwe insigte en gegewens. Ook is op hierdie wyse navorsingsterreine geïdentifiseer wat 'n verdere bydrae tot langtermynoplossings sou kon lewer.

In short, the important new insights gained during the conference should not be ignored, and will hopefully contribute to solutions in the long term. It was felt that the papers presented and the most important aspects of the proceedings at the conference should be made available to a wider audience - hence this publication.

On behalf of the organising committee I wish to express my appreciation to all who worked so hard to make this conference a success, and to the HSRC for making the funds and facilities available. Let us hope that our Black children will benefit in the end.



Henk Kroes

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The views expressed or the conclusions arrived at in this document are those of the authors and should not be regarded as those of the Human Sciences Research Council.

Menings wat in hierdie dokument uitgespreek of gevolgtrekkings waartoe geraak is, is dié van die outeurs en verteenwoordig nie noodwendig die standpunt van die Raad vir Geesteswetenskaplike Navorsing nie.

ANOTHER DIMENSION OF READINESS TO LEARN IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE

PROF. L.W. LANHAM
RHODES UNIVERSITY

ANOTHER DIMENSION OF READINESS TO LEARN IN THE SECOND LANGUAGE

The primary concern of this conference is with the state of readiness to proceed with the learning of subjects such as Mathematics, Geography, etc. through the medium of a second language. It must be borne in mind that what is known of the second language is a product not of natural assimilation, but of being taught it in the previous three years of schooling. For the great majority of primary school children English learnt in the classroom lacks any sustaining environment outside the school; English is, in other words, a foreign language. Evidence of an adequate state of readiness would be successful problem solving using words and structures of the second language, competence in descriptive or expository writing and an ability to read with understanding. Readiness therefore implies a baseline of competence in the second language usually conceived of as a knowledge of words and related concepts and an ability to use them in sentences.

I will suggest that this is a necessary but insufficient and superficial view to take of the baseline of readiness. The direction of my thinking leads from the following quote from research findings in Educational Psychology:

> "....meaningful learning occurs only if new information is linked to existing relevant concepts..."
>
> (Cassels and Johnstone, 1983)

What is implied here is that there is a deeper level still underlying the conceptual - the level of mental constructs to which the term cognition is commonly applied. Cognition emphasizes the structured and intergrative aspects of "conceptual linking" and the ability to apply cognitive processes to the world of our experience. This happens in, for example, solving problems and mentally constructing future states in the real world. The concern with cognition has, therefore, much to do with facility and skill in mental processing employing well-founded cognitive structures.

At this point I must digress to note that J.A. van Ek's threshold-level concept elaborates in a sophisticated way on the word-and-concept view of the state of readiness, but it is not really concerned with cognitive

aspects in defining such a state. His focus is on "language functions" and the expression of "notions". Language functions are concerned with how words are used to question, assert, command, persuade, etc. Notions refer to the expression in language of, for example, possession, ability to act, rightness and wrongness, etc. A threshold level specification remains, therefore, largely a list without the coherence implied by cognition.

In conceiving of the state of readiness required for learning through English or Afrikaans across the curriculum, the cognitive foundations underlying knowledge and skill areas such as numeration, time and the reading skill tend to be taken for granted. These three cognitive areas must have a firm foundation for an adequate state of readiness and it is to these three vitally important areas that I will devote my attention.

In order to give more clarity to what is implied by "a firm cognitive foundation", I would draw attention to the fact that the presence or absence of such a foundation may not be immediately obvious. To take numeration: an ability to count and put numbers to small quantities of objects in the world may conceal the ineptitude of knowing numbers mainly as a linear string without grasp of the decimal system. To take the reading skill: an interesting piece of recent research shows that it is quite possible to go through the motions of reading and to apply the product of such reading by passing a conventional comprehension test based on a text which is actually nonsense; in other words, not really to understand the text. (The text is made nonsense by the substitution of meaningless words for content words in the text. In terms of later discussion it will be clear why it should not be possible to process such a text cognitively.)

I have suggested that the cognitive level is usually taken for granted. One reason for this is the assumption that the cognitive structures have already been established in early education or through socializing experiences in the process of growing up. This assumption can be wrong for several reasons. One important reason is that in different cultural and social groups, children are exposed to different experiences which may well affect cognitive development and produce different cognitive

states. I can think of three main ways in which the formative influences of early childhood can differ. First are differences in educational experiences. Many American children in the 1950's and 60's were taught to read following a method informed by a false theory of reading. In consequence, many thousands of children in one or more generations were reading cripples.

A second influence which can affect cognitive development is that exercised by the language we learn as our mother tongue. Languages are selective in the way they organise the world and different languages provide different conceptual frames through which the child "sees" the world and mentally represents observed events and operations in it. For example, there is sufficient evidence of the effect of a quirk in the expression of number terms in Afrikaans to have led to a proposal that there should be a change in the way in which numbers are stated. I refer to the disruption of the logical order of hierachical descent from larger units to smaller when the last two digits are reached in a number such as:

1 3 5 4
een duisend drie honderd vyf en veertig = 1345

The belief is that this interferes with mental processes involved in calculating (by, for example, slowing it down or making it more difficult). Given that this is the case, we have an example of linguistically determined cognitive disadvantage. The converse of this is the thesis offered by Bejamin Whorf fifty years ago based on his study of the Hopi Indian language of America. The thesis was that the tense system and time words of Hopi captured time and space concepts in a way which would make Einsteinian physics readily comprehensible to the Hopi. The Hopi would, therefore, have been better placed intellectually than the users of European languages struggling to understand Einstein's theory of relativity.

The third influence affecting cognitive development is associated with socio-cultural experiences. Cultures differ in what they identify in the world as culturally important and the degree of emphasis placed on different areas of life activity. The cognitive basis of numeration (the system of numbers) can, for example, be more or less powerfully

stimulated and frequently implemented as a consequence of cultural bias. There are differences in readiness to project the system of numbers onto the world. Numbers are intrinsically bound up with the handling of money and with clocktime, and there are obvious cultural differences in the extent to which children are directed to the systems of time and money.

In suggesting that certain types of life experience can significantly affect cognitive development, I must remind you that it is the limited world of the young child which is our concern. In growing to adulthood, more diverse and challenging encounters with the world can, and do, eventually lead to the development of more elaborate cognitive states. Cognitive inadequacy may well have no greater consequences than lack of facility and skill in manipulations involved in performing tasks and solving problems, and this can be compensated for by further learning and practice.

The reading skill is probably the most important of all cognitively based skill areas that concern us here. I will devote most attention to it, but will start by a brief consideration of <u>numeration</u> and <u>time</u>.

NUMERATION. This area of knowledge and skill must be well founded cognitively for children to be sufficiently numerate for learning in the higher standards. Essentially the cognitive grasp of numeration implies the internalizing of the structure of the system of numbers and the foundation of this system rests on number groups based on ten in the decimal system. This lies at the heart of knowing, for example, how the two sixes are different in 6 164 when this number represents a quantity (say, a salary). But this quantity significance is suspended and the number stored as a linear sequence when remembering 6164 as my telephone number. Cross-reference is, of course, possible; when contemplating that: "There must be over 6000 telephones in Grahamstown."

Nimbleness of mind in projecting numeration into the world and mentally manipulating quantities of objects or values is part of having adequate cognitive grasp of numeration. In the real world numeration is commonly subjected to language-imposed grouping. The monetary system and the keeping of time are examples. Growing up in the western world provides frequent application and constant practice in running through the

arithmetical routines involving calculations in terms of time and money. Language determined number groups have considerable significance for the child who will use English or Afrikaans to learn. I have in mind terms like century with its reference to, and connotations of, historical time; also decade, dozen, score, etc. each with their own connotations. The term century well illustrates one of my main points. This term appears early in a history text used in Standard 3 in Black primary schools. A dedicated teacher of my acquaintance recently explained to me her difficulties with the term. Century is apparently a total blank in the vocabulary of the children. The teacher's difficulty lies not so much in introducing the children to the term, but in establishing the concept. The concept, I suggest, can only be filled out within the framework of "world-time" quantities: time aligned to changing states in the condition of man and the form of his world.

The cognitive states associated with quantifying money, distance, time, etc. are deeply laid mental structures, the product of years of stimulation and innumberable applications; built up over long periods of time. They cannot be set aside or dismantled. The change to decimalization in my lifetime has made this abundantly clear. I, among others, cannot visualize geographical distance in kilometres and always convert to miles; in attempting to understand the value of expensive goods I frequently convert to pounds; it is in Fahrenheit that I judge how hot or cold it will be.

TIME. In concept and application time has a cognitive state as basis. Elements of this state of understanding include the structure of clocktime as well as world-time, and the inter-relations between the two time systems. Clocktime is a system outside and above society exerting a discipline over individual members of it. In terms of clocktime, one is either late or early, or on time. Time is not social consensus and punctuality is a convergence of personal times controlled by clocktime.

READING. All learning that lies ahead of the Standard 3 child is founded on the reading skill. Competent readers employ sound cognitive strategies, the nature of which they are largely ignorant. In assessing competence to proceed with learning through the second language, however,

strategies which form the basis of competent reading must be identified.

The competent reading of a text begins with efforts to locate what is believed to be in the text in the context of previous experience. This creation of a background to the text using prior knowledge of the world, is maintained as reading progresses in order to produce representations of anticipated meaning. Information coming from the reading of the text feeds into a mentally created schema constructed on the basis of previous experience of similar events, routines, etc. The new information supplements, supplants, modifies and certainly expands on the components of such a schema. I take this quote from Sarah Murray (1985):

> "...the reader is viewed as being at least as important as the text. Reading comprehension is taken to be the reader's construction of meaning from the text. Thus reading is an interactive process between the reader and the text. The reader's understanding of the text will depend very much on his ability to relate it to his own previously acquired knowledge."

The schema-theory view of reading claims that what is comprehended in reading comes as much from the knowledge structures the reader brings to the text as from the text itself. For reading in the second language this raises important issues. It means, for example, that the second-language reader will interpret what he reads in the text in terms of its relevance to, and closeness of "fit" with, the components of his background schema and because of different cultural and life experiences, this may not, in fact, amount to the intended message of the text. An even more important issue is whether or not the second language reader makes any attempt to construct a background schema. There is evidence to suggest that even if this strategy is practised in the mother tongue (and this remains a question) it does not transfer in any effective way to learning to read in the second language. This may stem from the too common experience of having no access to the background schemata which writers of second language reading texts assume. Attacking a text relying only on information which flows from the sentences present in the text is, in effect, not to comprehend.

Another obvious limiting factor preventing the finding of cues for

creating a background schema and extracting new information to feed into it, may be deficiencies in linguistic competence (knowledge of vocabulary, syntax and semantics). Recent research indicates that construction of adequate background schemata compensates in varying degrees for an inability to decode words and structures in the text. This has important lessons for the teacher of reading in the second language and the creators of text. Good schema-creating strategies have to be induced in the reader. From pictures, titles and event-orientated words in early sentences, the first stage in reading is for the reader to raise to a level of conscious awareness of the background knowledge needed for understanding the text. It is up to the teacher to make this a first stage in reading. The text writer is required to consider whether the background knowledge necessary for creating a schema for his text is likely to exist in the reader. Furthermore, every text contains "missing propositions" - assumptions about shared knowledge of the world unexpressed by the writer and subconsciously supplied by the reader. What to the writer appears as a logical consequence, and obvious implication or next step in a sequence of actions or events, may not be so for the second language reader with a different world view or life experience. In texts for second language consumption it is better to err, therefore, in the direction of statements of the obvious.

An important aspect of the interactive process between reader and text involves predicting what is to come. The competent reader creates such expectations not only from a schema constructed from previous experience, but from cues coming from words, structures and meanings which themselves predict the words, structures and meanings that lie ahead. The words in our vocabulary are extensively linked with others in co-occurence probabilities arising from formulaic expressions, collocations, idioms and factual knowledge of the world, in fact, all favoured ways of saying things. Thus, for example, <u>a time</u> is predicted in children's stories by <u>Once upon a</u>, and <u>ever after</u> by <u>they lived happily</u>. <u>Passers-by stopped and</u> is likely to be followed by <u>stared</u>, <u>looked</u> or a few other words of similar meaning. It should be noted that having these co-occurrence expectancies is a product of extensive exposure to reading texts in the language or living in the culture; they are not the products of rules.

Prediction implies the presence of a running hypothesis in the mind of the competent reader of what lies ahead needing only a sampling of the text to confirm the hypothesis. The antithesis to this competent reading strategy is progressing from left to right processing each and every word, working out meaning in retrospect and adding it to that of a previous sentence. This way of reading precludes constructive interaction with the information in the text. Information got from the text is at very least incomplete. Proper information storage is impossible except that derived from the simplest and shortest texts. There is good evidence that even high school pupils are still operating at this level of the reading skill (which is only acceptable at the earliest stages of learning to read).

Another important cognitive strategy in reading allows for the proper storage of the content of a lengthy text, an ability to recall much of the information created in the text and an ability to inter-relate different parts of the text between which there is no overlap in ideas. From the linear progression of propositions in the text the reader must create a non-linear structure of inter-relationships: between mutually supporting propositions in the same topic line; sub-topics which support the main topic of a paragraph, etc. The competent reader, therefore, makes an effort to establish the coherence of the text and such effort also includes the extraction of the theme that unites the whole text. This takes the form of a progressively advancing synthesis which amounts to "what the text is about". A statement of theme is seldom overtly present in the text and has to be constructed from it. This is done by seeking the "central idea" sentence or sentences which all other sentences support and of which other sentences are obvious entailments (except, of course, for parenthetical asides). In simple narrative text the theme coincides more or less with the story line; in descriptive or expository text the structure is more complex. Theme in such text may be viewed as the backbone (propositionally unexpressed) which holds together other expressed propositions throughout the text. It has conceptual form but not necessarily syntactic expression.

Three main cognitive strategies in competent reading have been identified: first, fitting information present in the text into a background of

previous experience. Second, anticipating what is to come on the basis of probabilities arising from what has already been read. Third, constructing for oneself the coherence of the text. The last has important implications for creators of text for second language readers. Sentences which follow each other in descriptions, stories, etc. should express "logical next steps" - the reader should not have to reorder them to get the logical sequence. A proposition which expresses, for example, a consequence of, or reason for one which has gone before, should be transparently logical in that relationship.

Finally, I draw attention to what is implicit, but may not be obvious, in the ideas I have offered. In pursuing inquiry into the state of readiness - "where the child is at" - after four years of education, our attention must be directed not only at <u>what</u> he knows, but with <u>how</u> he knows it, and how skilful he is in applying his "knowing". In essence then, the concern is with <u>process</u> quite as much as <u>product</u>. This implies a major concern for what is going on in the child's mind as he reads, solves problems, describes, etc. This kind of inquiry goes far beyond merely determining whether, for example, a word and its meaning is known, or with the rightness or wrongness of answers to conventional comprehension questions. For a complete view of process we must also know how the child has reached his present cognitive state. This requires close analysis of the learning experiences of the child : the teaching/learning encounters and the materials to which he has been exposed. Syllabuses, methods, prescribed books, etc. are obviously involved.

I have indicated that the reading skill is of special concern and I should like to use it in illustration of the last point I have made. Because I am a reasonably proficient reader, and in view of the fact that the component skills of reading were never overtly imparted to me, I must assume that it was through exposure and practise arising from need that I acquired them. I must also assume that in order to acquire them, the texts to which I was exposed allowed the process to develop, i.e. they were well constructed. My examination of the reading in English to which Black South African children are exposed, particularly of the descriptive or expository kind, shows much of it to fail extensively as well constructed text. Due apparently, to erroneous beliefs regarding the simplification of text for second language readers, a commitment to drill-

like repetitions as a teaching technique, and, regrettably, obvious haste in preparation, texts are often difficult to process following strategies which amount to the cognitive basis of reading. You have in front of you a text which has been constructed in the model of texts read in Standard 3, bringing out the common failings of such texts. I have analysed the text and provided a reconstruction of its content. A competent reader would have to subconsciously undertake some such reconstruction in order to process a text of this kind.

As it stands the text is poorly constructed because:

(a) It is incoherent. In places ideas are illogically stated and related and are not mutually supporting.

(b) It is not thematically constructed. It is difficult to discern a main thread from topic-revealing sentences and sentence grouping in paragraphs.

(c) No attempt is made to set a background for accessible experience as a setting for the text. This could, for example, have been created in a discussion of mine dumps and mine headgears close to which many Soweto children live. Note that the opening paragraph is a false start in initiating the topic announced by the title.

If we are serious about inquiring into process, that is <u>how</u> a child learns, then the effect of texts of this kind need to be examined. They may well be major contributions to present tendencies to write in terms of disjoint, propositionally jumbled sentences, and also to rote learning. Learning by rote may be the only way the child has of remembering the content.

In preparing this talk I have had in mind those who have to analyse and specify the competence required for learning in the second language, and those preparing proficiency or diagnostic tests of such competence. A concern only with items of knowledge or skill may well confront them with children who pass their tests and yet fail to succeed in learning in the higher standards. The implications of my talk for English method and teaching material in the lower primary school, and the training of the teachers who use them, must also be obvious. If there are gaps or weaknesses in the cognitive aspects of readiness, it is early education which must make them good.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN BLACK EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

PROF. A.L. MAWASHA
UNIVERSITY OF THE NORTH

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN BLACK EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

1. INTRODUCTION

The problem of medium of instruction in Black education in Southern Africa and in anglophone Africa as a whole is at best one of communication between two different worlds - Africa and the West or at worst a superimposition of one different life style onto another - the Western onto the African. For reasons that Africa will probably never really know (except for what has been written by those concerned), certain fair-skinned people of Caucasian origin took it upon themselves to settle in lands occupied by dark skinned people under a unilateral deal called colonialization (or right of conquest) and all that went with it.

The novelist, Joseph Conrad in his Heart of Darkness (first published in 1902) could not help observing:

> "The conquest of the earth, which
> mostly means the taking it
> away from those who have a
> different complexion or slightly
> flatter noses than ourselves, is not
> a pretty thing when you look into
> it too much ....." (pp 50 - 51)

Africa was colonised, conquered or both by the Dutch, the British, the French and the Portuguese who brought with them their diverse worlds which in time gained ascendancy over the African world either because the Africans saw some advantages in these new worlds (which they were stuck with anyway) or because the denizens with the help of the cloth and some gunpower, propagated the good or the superiorities of their worlds so vigorously that they could not but win the locals. Among the newcomers were Christian missionaries and Christian missionary teachers who saw the indigenous inhabitants as their responsibility. Accordingly they set about deligently with the building of schools and churches not

only to Westernise the locals but also to convert them from their traditional religions to the Christian faith. Since language is a major defining characteristic of one's world, the languages of the newcomers naturally became, initially, the languages of the school and the church or of enlightenment and salvation and subsequently of public life generally.

This paper examines the question of English as medium of instruction in Black education in Southern Africa. The present speaker has over the last ten years or so made some modest contribution in this field (Mawasha, A.L. 1969; Mawasha A.L. 1977; Mawasha A.L. 1978; Mawasha A.L. 1979; Mawasha A.L. 1983). This particular presentation addresses three areas bearing on the issue of English as medium of instruction in Black schools in Southern Africa:

- Reasons for preferring English as medium of instruction in Black education
- Some attendant problems to this preferance
- Information gap or what is lacking in our knowledge of the problem.

2. WHY ENGLISH AS MEDIUM

The most obvious reason why English came to be the medium of instruction in Black schools in anglophone Africa, including Southern Africa is that the early Christian missionary teachers who worked among the indigenous peoples in this part of the world were in the main English-speaking and therefore could not but use their language in their schools. The less obvious reason is that education as understood (in good faith) by these early teachers meant knowing and accepting things and ideas belonging to the Western world or interpreting and evaluating things and ideas belonging to Africa from a western perspective. To achieve all these things the main language of instruction and westernisation generally had to be English.

This tendency interesting enough, is evident in Shakespeare's Tempest which was written long before the age of Colonisation. Prospero and his daughter Miranda find refuge on an island inhabited by the likes of Caliban. Almost immediately Prospero with his magic and whatever else takes over the island and proceeds to "educate" Caliban and to teach him how to speak (English).

Prospero says as follows to Caliban who is showing some signs of rebellion:

"I pitied thee,

Took pains to make thee speak, taught thee each hour
One thing or other: when thou didst not, savage,
Know thine own meaning, but would gabble like
A thing most brutish, I endow'd thy purposes
With words that made them known: but thy vile race
Though thou didst learn, had that in't which good natures

Could not abide to be with: Therefore was thou
Deservedly confin'd into this rock,
Who hadst deserved more than a prison"

(Act I, Scene II)

What Caliban calls his language, Prospero calls a "gabble" of "A thing most brutish .....". Therefore Caliban had to learn to speak a meaningful language - English in order to function in the new world that Prospero and his daughter had brought along with them. Caliban recognises that Prospero has "educated" him:

"To name the bigger light and how the lesser
That burn by day and night ....."

Caliban appreciated this and took Prospero into his confidence:

"..... and then I lov'd thee
And show'd thee all the qualities o' th' isle,"

But now Caliban doubts the wisdom of his trust:

"Cursed be I that did so! ....."

But he knows he is now powerless over Prospero:

"I must obey: his (Prospero's) art is of such power,
It would control my dam's god Setebos
And make a vassal of him"

The best Caliban can do now is to use the very weapon that Prospero has given him - language (English) - to vent his emotions of anger and frustration:

"You taught me language; and my profit on't
Is, I know how to curse: the red plague rid you
For learning me your language!" (Act I, Scene II)

If for purposes of argument we were to take Shakespeare as representative of the species, then we would probably understand why the languages of the newcomers rather than those of the locals were learned, why they were used as media of learning and why the content of education generally was not locally based. Perhaps we might even understand the liberation struggles of the past 25 years throughout Africa. And, about language, understand the reason behind Black protest literature (in English and Afrikaans) that is so prolific in South Africa nowadays.

Viv Edwards consoles us. She refutes the idea of English being "an intrinsically superior language ..." whose speakers have "..... a monopoly of precision, expressiveness and understanding ....." Such views are "..... based on appeals to emotions rather than reasoned argument" (Edwards, Viv, 1983, p.9).

Peter Strevens does not disagree in the main but cautions strongly against the use of, say, African languages as main media of education in lieu of, say, English:

> "There is overwhelming evidence that any language is potentially able to be developed so as to express all the communication needs of the people who speak it, including scientific discourse of all kinds. But this is a statement of potentiality, not actuality" (Strevens, Peter, 1982, p. 140) 1)

Strevens continues to give the following specific areas of difficulty in using certain local languages (in lieu of English) as media of instruction in teaching Science:

- "The absence, in the learner's language of a word or expression equivalent to one in English e.g. electricity, octagonal, expansion;

- "the absence in the learner's own language or culture of a

1) Emphasis mine

necessary concept e.g. infinity, zero, gravity;

- "lack of familiarity on the part of the learner with everyday roots from Greek or Latin which enter into scientific vocabulary e.g. geo-, therm-, zoo-, kilo-, multi-, ante-, anti-, etc.;

- "lack of precision in the use of language ....." (ibid., pp. 137-138)

C.T. Loram and the British Colonial Secretary were more blunt but for different reasons. C.T. Loram, an Inspector of Schools in Natal described African languages as

"..... hopelessly clumsy and inadequate on the mathematical and scientific sides" (Quoted by Mawasha A.L., 1982, p.29)

In 1856 the British Colonial Secretary issued an instruction to Sir Henry Potinger, then Governor of the Cape Colony to the effect that:

"Every attempt to reduce the Kaffir tongue to writing as a medium of instruction should be carefully avoided and discouraged"
(Quoted by Mawasha, A.L., 1979, p.45)

One feels that the African languages are hopeless as media of learning and the other fears they might develop to be such and therefore vie with English for popularity in the classroom.

Available literature (see for example Mawasha, A.L., 1969; Mawasha, A.L., 1976; Mawasha A.L., 1982) show that Black people in

South Africa and in anglophone Africa as a whole were, for various reasons, happy with English as a medium of instruction and were loath to have it replaced with African languages especially above lower primary school (TUATA, 1973). They were (and still are) satisfied with its potency and expressiveness; its adequacy in science and technology terms and language generally; its efficiency in providing communication across linguistic and cultural barriers in Africa with all its multiplicity of languages, many of which are not mutually intelligible; its rich and wide covering written literature spanning many centuries; its international applicability.

They are also satisfied that its removal from the Black classroom or its weakening in any way will not be in the best interest of Black education or Black advancement generally.

Prof. Es'kia Mphahlele, probably one of the most outstanding Black academics and men of letters today, said in a paper (read to the English Academy of Southern Africa) entitled "Prometheus in Chains - The Fate of English in South Africa" (April 27, 1984, pp. 13-14):

> "When the gods woke up to the fact that many more Africans spoke English than Afrikaans, and that the former had become the carrier of Prometheus's fire, they gave commands in 1953.* The other gods listened and trembled and cried "hoor, hoor!" The flower began to droop and to wilt. Mother tongue was enforced in the primary and secondary schools. Although the process did not last, its run was long enough to inflict considerable damage.
>
> "The gods had come to realise that to limit thought, to immobilize the vital process of conceptualization, to

*Reference to the Bantu Education Act of 1953 which advocated, inter alia, the use of the vernacular as medium of instruction in Black schools.

prevent the free flow of ideas, blast language from the lips of its users, or make it appear inconsequential, at best a difficult nuisance; reduce it to an incoherent stutter. Because to create concepts you create language. Concepts like liberalism (with a small "l"), nationalism, unity, Africanity, "freedom in our time", oppression, fascism, tyranny, socialism, democracy and so on are only possible when you have a language for them. Likewise if you have a language you can create new concepts. The mother tongue was not equal to this."

Elsewhere in anglophone Africa studies tend to show that on the whole preference for English as a language of education did not diminish markedly with independance from Britain. A pilot study by S.H.O. Tomori in Nigeria (1964) showed that even rural adults regard English as a defining characteristic of literacy. Stephen B.Baker (1983) found that despite limitations English remained the most preferred language of education in Zambia. It is the same in Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland and probably Zimbabwe.

We need to make a distinction between the use of indigenous languages as <u>national languages</u> and the use of these languages as <u>media of instruction</u>. For example when in 1969 President Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya said:

"We are soon going to use Swahili in Parliament, whether people like it or not." (Harries, L., in Chris Kennedy (Ed.) 1984, p. 118),

he was not necessarily saying that Swahili would henceforth replace English as a medium of instruction. For the same reason, when Ngugi wa Thiong'o recommended in a paper published in October 1968:

"That the English Department be abolished" (Wa Thiong'o, Ngugi,

1975, p. 146) he was not saying away with English as a medium of instruction in Kenyan schools; rather he was calling for greater recognition of African literature in Kenyan education (ibid.).

If and when the Administration in South Africa changes and becomes more representative, probably Black South Africans will elevate African languages to the same status as English in schools, colleges and universities, but will most probably retain English as the medium of instruction from the higher primary upwards. (See also the official statement by TUATA, 1977; the recommendation of the HSRC Committee on the Provision of Education in the R.S.A. on medium of instruction and the teaching of languages, (1981, pp. 142-146). The position of English and Afrikaans as media of instruction in English and Afrikaans medium schools is not at issue and will probably remain so for some time to come (see Government White Paper on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, (1983, pp. 36-37). What might happen (and this is underway already albeit at a low key) is that African languages might assume greater importance as subjects in English and Afrikaans medium schools. This would probably be done in order to bring the multilingual and multicultural nature of the sub-content into sharp focus and so control the problem of language being "the traditional South African polariser" (see Bettina, J., quoted in HSRC Report on Language Loyalty in South Africa, 1978, p.2). The HSRC Committee on Intergroup Relations touched on the issue of languages of the country and intergroup relations in its report: The South African Society: Realities and Future Prospects (1985 pp. 34-35).

3. PROBLEMS OF USING EL2 AS MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN BLACK EDUCATION

There are three obvious problems that go with the preferance of English as medium of instruction in Black education. We list these without belabouring the point unduly.

- Not all teachers are adequately articulate in English to use it to maximum advantage as a medium of instruction.

- The environment in which the children live (environment outside school) is not always supportive of English as a medium of instruction. This limitation tends to confine learning to the school yard and the classroom.

- Many pupils, for various reasons, are not always at home with English enough to use it maximally as a means of acquiring, storing, transmitting and even generating knowledge.

Professionally these problems should be dealt with at two levels. Level one: Teacher training institutions should intensify programmes in English for communication so that new teachers who join the fraternity should provide reliable models of English as a language and English as medium of instruction. The mistaken notion that teachers who teach English or use it as medium should be mother tongue speakers of English needs to be buried once and for all. It is logistically impracticable to man all Black schools with English first language speakers; it is mischievous to say that Black people are inherently incapable of learning and mastering English. Black teachers can and must be trained to use English effectively as a medium of communication and to use it to advantage as a medium of teaching and learning. Level two: More co-ordinated and properly structured in-service training is required to assist those teachers who are yet to be proficient in English. To implement this level effectively, the teachers themselves will have to strive for self-improvement. When all is said and done it is the individual himself who must improve himself since others can only guide and assist.

4. INFORMATION GAP

It is not uncommon for learners in Afrikaans and English medium schools to obtain 4, 5, 6, 7 or even 8 distinctions in their matriculation examinations. Learners in African schools rarely (if ever) equal or better this performance. Is this strictly a first

language versus a second language as media of instruction? Or are there other variables that are rarely commented upon?

The speaker is not aware of any consistant scientific studies that have been conducted to show that the first language-second language issue is the sole or a critical variable in scholastic performance in the different school subjects i.e. the arts e.g. History, Geography; the sciences e.g. Biology, Mathematics, Physical Science; the commercial subjects e.g. Shorthand, Economics, etc. In the absence of such evidence - generated in South African Black schools versus South African White schools - this area remains an information gap.

Personal experience persuades the speaker to regard variables such as deprived home environments with accompanying poor study facilities and often non-existent parental guidance and support; poor physical school environment such as lack of libraries, laboratories and workrooms; poor health facilities especially in the rural areas; poor diet with its accompanying problems of listlessness and innui; racial, social and political tensions and the like may well be very important variables affecting the scholastic performance of the Black child as against his White counterpart. But this is yet to be confirmed by research. Studies such as those conducted in the United States , United Kingdom and Canada are obviously urgently needed in South Africa if we are to make a scientific statement on scholastic performance versus first language and second language as media of instruction in South African schools.

5. CONCLUSION

English will remain the medium of instruction in Black education for many years to come. Problems accompanying this preferance will have to be addressed deligently in order to give the learner maximum advantage in the classroom.

"To make equal education really equal" (Auerbach, Franz, 1985)

possible variables noted above will also need to be addressed if only to control them as factors influencing scholastic performance by Black learners compared with their White counterparts.

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LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

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LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

SUMMARY

Language across the curriculum (LAC) is described in terms of curricula in South African education and problematised in the specific context of Black education. LAC is examined in relation to expressed concerns about poor competence in the use of English as a medium of instruction in Black schooling. Teacher-dominated teaching is seen as an obstacle to LAC. The crux of the problem is how to implement LAC, given difficulties in formulating a national policy for LAC in all schools. The Bullock Report is briefly cited as a model for local policy making. Five dimensions of LAC are considered: teacher attitudes; supplanting traditional methods with pupil-centredness and exploratory pupil-talk; the need for an integrated curriculum, and the language of textbooks as models for LAC. Finally, proposals are made for laying the basis for a national LAC policy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Arguing for the use of "language across the curriculum" (hereafter LAC) is almost like pleading for "education across the curriculum!" Both are processes so intrinsic to teaching, learning and schooling that they are taken for granted. It is assumed that ALL teachers take care of the language aspects of whatever subjects they teach, in whatever medium of instruction and at any given level of education. Likewise our education systems in South Africa take for granted that whenever teachers and students meet together in the common pursuit of knowledge and understanding through schooling, education takes place. That both assumptions are ill-founded needs little debate; the question of whether education takes place across the curriculum, however, lies beyond the scope of this paper. Suffice it to say that it could be argued that education is the desired outcome of the curriculum process at work in schools, an essential ingredient of which is the use of language as communication between pupils and teachers in the classroom.

Language across the curriculum is, I suggest:

THE TEACHER'S REGULAR CONCERN WITH AND ACTIVE ATTENTION TO, THE FORMS, MEANINGS AND SOUNDS OF LANGUAGE AS A MEANS OF COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM TO ACHIEVE LEARNING. SUCH CONCERN EXTENDS TO THAT TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITY TO ENSURE THAT LEARNERS UNDERSTAND AND USE EFFECTIVELY AND APPROPRIATELY THE SPECIFIC FORMS, MEANINGS AND SOUNDS OF THE LANGUAGE OF THE SUBJECTS TAUGHT, TO ENABLE USE OF THE LANGUAGE BEYOND THE CLASSROOM, IN FORMAL AND INFORMAL SOCIAL CONTEXTS.

LAC is (or should be) the concern of every teacher and not only of the language teacher per se. The cliché that "every teacher is a language teacher" is still a valid slogan in the classroom!

1.1 Why is there a concern about language?

That LAC is problematised here is not surprising, given widespread international concern about school-leavers' ability to communicate effectively in the world of work or in higher education. That employers and university lecturers alike seriously question the competence of many entrants to their worlds and actively institute bridging courses in language for such entrants points directly at serious deficiencies in the schooling process. While many complex factors can be identified as causes for this condition, there is widespread agreement that the communicative competence of teachers and pupils at all levels needs improvement. The reports of the main committee of the De Lange Commission (1981) and its work committee on Languages and Language Instruction (1981) clearly identified this as a major problem in South Africa. Leschinsky's (HSRC) report on the attitudes of (white) primary school ESL teachers (1985) echoes many of these findings.

The paradox is that these problems have been articulated at a time when children, especially in a South Africa which reached the TV

age, have more sophisticated world knowledge and social maturity than the generation of adults that bemoan this fall-off in communicative competence. Our increasingly high-technological society has devalued expressive, creative and discursive communication in language, placing instead a premium on pre-packaged information fed through the funnel of a TV tube into uncritical, passive audiences in the living rooms of the global village. Perhaps there is an inverse relationship between possession of new-generation information and the ability to communicate it. Verbal literacy seems to diminish under the onslaught of pictorial transmission of news and dramatic "literature" and soap operas previously encoded in printed texts which challenged their readers to negotiate meanings with them and re-read them for deeper meanings. But before I appear to be a Luddite, let me try to unravel this paradox: The apparent decline in verbal literacy in school leavers and the exponential growth in their knowledge cannot obviate their need for life-survival skills, the cardinal of which is ability to use language as communication in the adult world where unemployment is high and work often goes to those who argue the case for it best in the most effective and appropriate language, in speech and in writing.

But more specifically in terms of Black education in South Africa, where English is the medium of instruction but not the mother tongue of all learners from Standards 3 to 10, there is well-known, great concern about the standard of English used by teachers and students. High failure rates in Std 10, particularly, point to the lack of adequate preparation of matriculants. Such inadequacy is often rooted in language incompetence, the cause of which cannot be found in the English subject classroom alone, but across the curriculum in every subject taught through English as a medium.

2. BASICS: COMMUNICATION, LANGUAGE AND CURRICULUM

Inevitably, any discussion of LAC leads us back to the work of Douglas Barnes, who pioneered the emphasis on LAC in British schools in the late 60's and into the 70's. Coupled with this was

the support for the policy of LAC from the Schools' Council and the powerful, highly explicit recommendations about LAC in the renowned Bullock Report, "A Language for Life", 1975.

Barnes stressed the interdependence of communication and curriculum thus:

"Education is a form of communication... when people talk about the 'school curriculum' they often mean 'what teachers plan in advance for their pupils to learn.' But a curriculum made only of teachers' intentions would be an insubstantial thing from which nobody would learn much. To become meaningful a curriculum has to be enacted by pupils as well as teachers, all of whom have their private lives outside school. By 'enact' I mean come together in a meaningful communication - talk, write, read books, collaborate, become angry with one another, learn what to say and do. A curriculum, as soon as it becomes more than intentions, is embodied in the communicative life of an institution, the talk and gestures by which pupils and teachers exchange meanings even when they quarrel and cannot agree. In this sense curriculum is a form of communication." (Barnes, 1976:14)

If curriculum is a form of communication, it must be articulated in language use, since communication presupposes, primarily, the use of a common language or code. Obviously language is used in every classroom by every teacher. The questions are: how is it used, for what purposes and with what effects? What is the ratio of time spent by the teacher transmitting "knowledge" through "teacher talk" to that spent listening to pupils talking, expressing ideas and interpreting "knowledge"? Flanders' classic "rule of two-thirds" is, in my experience of observing many lessons in both Black and White schools, regularly well-exceeded. Teachers seem predisposed to talk for at least two-thirds of the time and more than two thirds of that talk is "teacher talk". Do pupils find sufficient sustained opportunity to use English in its spoken form, to become familiar with the sounds of the language used by their peers rather than by their teachers? Are they encouraged to

explore the meanings of words other than as these occur in the inhibiting cold formality of text book language? If communication is the negotiation of meanings in social contexts, are there sufficient classroom openings for pupils to explore the social use of language, so that they can transfer experience of English in the classroom to the real world outside in a way that enables them to speak appropriately and colloquially to mother tongue English speakers?

LAC can hardly begin to work in a teacher-dominated classroom, with no opportunity for individualisation and group work, the object of which is to explore and negotiate meanings in the language.

2.1 Syllabus vs curriculum

There is a widespread tendency in South Africa to equate "syllabus" with "curriculum". The latter, if understood at all, is invested with abstract connotations, the preserve of theorists, while syllabus, a prescriptive inventory of items taught to meet an annual examination deadline, is dominant to the exclusion of all else. Curriculum, in explicit and hidden forms, is surely the totality of all classroom activity. It shapes, ideologically, intellectually and socially, what pupils and teachers actually do in their ritualistic adherance to syllabuses. In this paper I wish to look beyond the ends-means model of curriculum much favoured in South Africa, wherein curriculum is often understood as a series of intended learning outcomes itemised in a syllabus, and instead draw on Lawrence Stenhouse's description:

"A curriculum is the means by which the experience of attempting to put an educational proposal into practice is made publicly available. It involves both content and method, and in its widest application takes account of the problem of implementation (my emphasis) in the institutions of the educational system." (Stenhouse, 1975:5)

2.2 Implementation

The nub of the problem of LAC is its implementation, in this case in the system of Black education. In a system such as this, heavily top-down in administration, only the bravest teacher will initiate LAC without official, explicit directives and support from inspectors. I have often watched my own students trying in vain to promote LAC in Black schools during teaching practice, only to be reprimanded by classroom teachers for wasting time with things not in the syllabus and which undermine the teacher's authority by encouraging pupil-centred discussion in groups.

LAC, then, can only begin to operate effectively if it flows from a clear official directive from the highest authority encouraging its implementation in schools. That is the first and essential step of many to be taken to ensure LAC as a reality in Black or any other education system in South Africa. Perhaps, with the promised single policy for education recently announced, a policy of LAC will mean, in reality for the first time, language across the curriculum AND across ALL school systems.

3. A POLICY FOR LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Clearly, we need a South African policy at national curriculum planning level which will boldly encourage teachers and teachers in training to initiate LAC methods in their teaching. The model offered by the Bullock Report has never gained credance in South Africa. Perhaps a further look at relevant recommendations in that report might inspire some interest and motivation, even if a decade later.

3.1 The Bullock Report

Bullock made 17 main recommendations aimed at improving the quality of language teaching and LAC in British schools, all intended

"...to support and strengthen the teachers in schools, for it is

with them that improvements in standards of reading and language most assuredly lie..." (Bullock, 1975).

Crucial to us is recommendation 3:

"Every school should have an organised policy for language across the curriculum, establishing every teacher's involvement in language and reading development throughout the years of schooling."

And, in order to facilitate this, recommendation 15 focussed on teacher training:

"A substantial course in Language Education (including reading) should be part of every primary and secondary school teacher's initial training, whatever the teacher's subject or the age of the children with whom he or she will be working."

Finally, Bullock recommended a "national centre for language in education, concerned with the teaching of English in all its aspects, from language and reading in the early years to advanced studies with sixth forms".

With so great a weight of emphasis on LAC and language in education, British teachers could hardly seek more encouragement to implement LAC should they be personally motivated. In spite of this support LAC was slow in establishment in the UK. It now enjoys widespread implementation. In the De Lange reports, notably that of the Work Committee: Languages and Language Instruction (1981), a golden opportunity to follow Bullock's example was lost. Little was said explicitly about the centrality of LAC, and only recommendation 2.9.3.4 alludes to LAC:

"The language used as a medium in education does not replace that language as a subject-component of the curriculum. The former will reinforce the latter and vice-versa, but insufficient proficiency in the 'medium' language inhibits or restricts progress and overall achievement..." (1981:51)

If anything, this recommendation discourages LAC, in that it assigns priority in language teaching to the language as subject teacher, at the same time implicitly absolving other subject teachers of responsibility for LAC!

All three Bullock recommendations quoted above could almost verbatim form the basis for a similar South African policy aimed at introducing LAC on a national scale. Firstly a macrolevel decision would need to be taken enabling an explicit directive to all education departments to curricularise LAC, for reasons already argued earlier in this paper. Secondly, all teacher training could include LAC/Language education components as compulsory, core components in teaching diploma courses. Thirdly, the establishment of a national language teachers' curriculum and resource centre is not beyond the realms of possibility, given that there is intense and widespread activity throughout the country - at last count some 70 organisations concerned themselves with English Second Language teaching in Black education. A national clearing house and information centre - a mini ELTIC-type centre for LAC development would provide much needed resources and linkage facilities for these numerous organisations, many of whom work in unintentional (or ideologically intentioned) isolation, often duplicating effort and draining much needed financial backing which could be better spent on integrated rather than isolated projects duplicating the aims and work of others in similar isolation.

The finer details of such policies cannot be debated in this short paper, though I shall return to the specific issue of the need to relate LAC policies to integrated curricula wherein thematic, conceptual teaching replaces subject specialised teaching. But, assuming that with the wave of a curriculator's magic, political wand we awoke tomorrow to the dawn of a new world brimming with LAC in every classroom and training college, how would we put our idealism into practice?

4. POLICY AND PRACTICE

Assuming that we have a miraculous overnight policy change, enthusiastically endorsed by inspectors and principals alike, how would teachers put LAC into practice at both primary and secondary levels?

To attempt to answer this question we need to consider various factors affecting the feasibility of implementing LAC in Black schools. These are, I suggest:

(i) Teachers' attitudes towards LAC and the use of English as a medium of instruction.

(ii) The problem of supplanting traditional, entrenched methodologies, particularly those which are teacher-centred and transmission-mode approaches, with learner-centred methods which allow exploratory language to be used in small groups in peer group interaction.

(iii) The fact that the successful introduction of LAC depends on the introduction of an integrated curriculum which underplays subject specialisation at secondary level.

(iv) The language of textbooks, in so far as these serve as authoritative models of "standard" English for teachers and pupils unsure of their own English proficiency. Textbooks, so often tailored closely around the forms of syllabuses, provide the texts for many lessons, and for rote-learning for examinations.

(v) The practicability of introducing LAC in the light of the harsh realities of Black education, e.g.: overcrowded, large classes, inadequate and meagre provision of basic resources and facilities and demotivated, under-qualified teachers, to say the least.

Let's consider each of these factors more closely:

4.1 Attitudes towards LAC and English as a medium

The successful introduction of LAC into the classroom depends, clearly, on teachers' willingness and motivation to explore a new approach and nurture it to fruition. It is easy to engage in extensive research into LAC and language medium policies, as has been done widely in Africa and elsewhere. It is far more difficult to translate those policies into viable forms of action and methodologies which motivate teachers and students to new styles of teaching and classroom interaction using a language not their own.

The use of English as a medium, however well-motivated, and borne of political conflict rooted in 1976 in Soweto, is problematic in curriculum terms. If we view curriculum, with Buckland, as

"...selections from the culture which are presented to the learner in the school" (Buckland, 1983:172)

then the use of English could arguably be an imposition of a non-indigenous culture on those who use it as a medium of communication in the classroom. While I do not wish to infuse the complex issue of intercultural communication here, it must be said that the inter-relatedness of culture and curriculum are crucial factors in the learning process. The selections from the English cultural milieu encoded in English as a medium reflect a non-African context, with corresponding alien value systems encoded in textbooks. The writers of such textbooks are predominantly White, Euro-centric educationists, who inevitably, unavoidably, inject their cultural bias into the content, style and form of their writing for Afro-centred learners.

The roles of teachers and learners in the English as medium classroom are also confused between the traditional and the new, or, as Ellis sees it:

"...teachers, even when willing, are often unable to use English

to generate the kind of classroom interaction in which learning can flourish. It is probable that the problem is not simply one of lack of classroom communication skills in English on the part of the teachers and students, but a more general one, to do with the attitudes teachers and students have regarding their classroom roles." (Ellis, 1985:1)

Ellis is sharing his experiences of working with Zulu-speaking teacher trainees and teachers. My own experience of similar work is that teachers are unwilling to relinquish their dominant roles in class. They, like teachers everywhere, enjoy talking for much of each lesson in the belief that teacher-talk ensures control over the flow of knowledge, thus ensuring discipline. To allow open-ended, exploratory student-centred talk in groups or in open debate with the teacher is often seen as a highly risky undertaking. That the medium of instruction is not the mother tongue is both reason and excuse to restrict pupil-initiated talk. After all, how does one ensure that seven groups of eight each in a confined space will all talk English exclusively without constant teacher monitoring?

These circumstances, I would argue, predispose teachers to transmission modes of teaching, in Barnes' terms (1976). The teacher controls rigorously the one-way flow of information and manages strictly the nature and extent, if any, of student response in the form of closed answers to fact-seeking questions only. The teacher authorises knowledge rather than negotiating it with students. Barnes' alternative, "interpretation" teaching, requires student freedom in using language in exploratory ways in informal, peer group controlled situations, wherein pupils themselves authorise the forms of language and what counts as valuable or important knowledge in curriculum terms. Such freedom is threatening to a teacher unsure of his ability to articulate his knowledge in English in informal ways in response to pupils' questioning and challenging of the teacher's knowledge base (Simons, 1985). The teacher's role in interpretation teaching is problematic, for both teacher and students, the latter ironically, perhaps preferring transmission teaching because, as Ellis argues:

"Student attitudes to education may also help to propagate transmission education. Many African students have a strong instrumental motivation to learn. Education is seen as the passport to a salaried post. Examination success is vital. It is not easy to convince students, particularly at secondary level, that exploratory discussion is the best way of achieving the results they crave."(Ellis, 1985:1)

It could be argued that Ellis' observation no longer holds true in urban schools shaped in the forge of alternative education idealism following recent unrest in Black schools. But my own experience as recently as August 1985 in KwaZulu schools showed me quite clearly that large numbers of students reacted very negatively to my students' attempts to inspire LAC praxis in the classes they taught. The spectre of the matric exam loomed large and my student teachers were impatiently urged by their classes to drop interpretation teaching and get on with the syllabus, in transmission mode of teaching!

4.2 Teacher-centredness vs learner-centred language use

It is unwise to generalise about Black education in these difficult times, but I think it a fair comment to make, on the basis of experience in Black and White schools, that teacher-entred, transmission teaching is endemic. There is great resistance from teachers and pupils to allow unstructured, learner-centred talk in the classroom. Coupled with this is the world-wide tradition of subject framing and classification and specialist teaching in secondary schools, so incisively critiqued by Bernstein (1970). Our pre-occupation with isolating the language of, say Maths from that of Science and Biology or History leads us to assign exclusive, subject-specific meanings to words such as "function", "mass", "weight", "revolution", "base", "ratio", "roots", "acute" "radical" and so on. An English second language learner in a subject-framed history class will not necessarily transfer the links and contrasts in meaning between "revolution" in the History textbook to that world's denotation

in Science or Geometry, unless the teacher explicitly points to those links and encourages learners, through exploratory talk, to use such concepts in specific and generic contexts of meaning. This is what I mean by negotiating meanings. Such negotiation can best be achieved through regular open-ended questioning and discussion. A closed question by the teacher such as "What is the meaning of revolution?" will elicit, if at all, a narrow, subject-based answer. But an open question such as, "What different meanings can you find for 'revolution?" addressed to groups of four or five learners with the instruction that they explore, using dictionaries and textbooks across the curriculum, the different meanings to be found, will stimulate curiosity and learning. It will also, I believe, sharpen an understanding of the subject specific concept, learners being now able to locate it on a spectrum of meanings and know why it is used precisely in history in a way unlike its use in Geography, or in Science, for that matter.

Similarly, the need to explore the meanings of words and concepts can be extended more fundamentally to open-ended questioning such as: "What is History, what is Science, or Geography?" How often do we begin teaching a subject, say at Standard 6 level after taking for granted that all pupils in the class fully understand what the word "history" entails? I have put the same question to History major graduates in teacher training only to receive vague and woolly answers, often because they have never considered the question before.

Such discussion of concepts should be just that - talk, rather than formal writing. A way into learner-centred exploratory talk could be this focus on concept formation through open-ended discussion of meanings. The understanding of concepts and terms in the second language as medium is a major problem in Black education, for as we know, much recent Western technological jargon, especially in Science, finds no vernacular lexical equivalent, so that such terms are learned as semantic primes rather than through negotiated understanding. In allowing the

exploration of concepts in subjects across the curriculum the teacher can act as referee rather than author of knowledge. Dictionaries and texts are the source of concepts and their meanings. A Maths teacher, then could ask: "Find out how the word 'function' changes in meaning between, say 'x is a function of y' and 'my function' is to help you learn Maths." Such investment of time might not be as extravagent as it appears. Much failure to perform well in exams, is, I suggest, the result of inadequate grasp of basic, crucial concepts with resultant compounding effects of subject illiteracy.

4.3 The need for an integrated curriculum

To explore meanings of concepts in the ways suggested above depends on a policy of integrating the curriculum to a much larger extent than is now the case. Once again, to expect teachers to change their classroom methods and attitudes we need curriculum policy changes from the top. While the matriculation examination defines knowledge and tests it in terms of discretely classified subjects such as History, Geography, Science, English and Afrikaans, all with isolated lexicons and apparently unrelated concept inventories, there is little chance of LAC policies being effective.

For LAC to work as a policy for action in schools, teachers need to be able to move outside the laagers of their timetable classified subjects. They need to consider the words, concepts and jargon of their colleagues' subjects and by consensus work out ways of helping their students explore fully the meanings of the vast array of subject specific concepts which also have common, general meanings in everyday communication, such as those exemplified above. This is done at primary level, but hardly at the secondary level. Themes, rather than subjects could become timetabled, with teachers working in teams. In studying History and Science together, for example, the concept of time could be explored in terms of how we use language to express knowledge of things past and how we report on experiments observed using past tense verb forms.

Central to this approach could be the study of concepts as a foundation, cross curriculum activity, with the timetable being redesigned around thematically linked concepts such as time, space, movement, depth, height, heat, energy, war, peace, love, hate, sex and so on. Once the social, common meanings of these concepts are understood, topic or subject-specific meanings can be explored. The advantage of such integration of teaching previously done in subject-bound isolation would be the demistification of knowledge, thereby making it more social and accessible. Activities such as thematic projects relating Science, History, Geography, Biology and the languages would be the next step, eventually leading to a more holistic approach to knowledge as a social tool rather than as an examination passing device. The central thread running through this approach is language and its wide and varied use to express understanding of the foundation "core" of concepts explored.

4.4 The language of textbooks

Textbooks, even if in short supply in Black schools, invariably are the pretext and text for most lessons, especially at secondary level. As I have argued earlier in this paper, textbooks and syllabuses are so closely linked that teachers find a ready pretext for heavy reliance on such books. Textbooks written in the English medium by experts, some of whom are English speaking are understandably perceived as authentic and authorative models of English use. It is comforting to encode the knowledge base of the lesson in the language of the textbook, even to the point of enforcing rote learning of tracts in it, rather than struggling in one's own, non-vernacular English to summarise, abstract and paraphrase content. Textbooks encapsulate the syllabus and flesh out its skeleton. Learners are captive and vulnerable, therefore, to the way in which language is used to transmit subject content. Many South African textbooks are encoded in language way beyond the reading comprehension levels of their designated class levels. In Science and Maths, too, Standard 9 & 10 texts are those used by

first language English speakers, many of whom have difficulty with the complexity and readability of those texts.

Little work has been done on this problem within Black education, but Wegerhoff's (1981) study "A Readability Evaluation of Junior Secondary Physical Science Textbooks used in Cape Education department Schools" offered signified recommendations to publishers on how to improve the readability of their textbooks. It is well known that many publishers have reacted positively to his work and new texts in some cases evince this concern. I shall return later to examples of texts which are problematic.

Wegerhoff stresses the need to move away from close dependence on the textbook to teacher mediation and facilitation of the process of discovery and observation in the science class:

"Bridging the gap between the language of the textbook is therefore the task of the teacher." (p.142)

Wegerhoff argues that this can be achieved by the teacher taking care over instruction, as he puts it, drawing attention to complex words and structures inhibiting reading comprehension. But this does not go far enough, in my view. The language of Science demands constant learner use in formal and informal styles. The cold, third person passive voice indicative mood of scientific experimental reporting needs personalising if learners are to relate to it in social terms. This can best be achieved by abundant use of worksheets (as recommended by Wegerhoff), but at the level of vigorous and open-ended group workshop-type explorations and observation writing. Publishers are understandably reluctant to invest heavily in disposable worksheets, but many Black schools do not have the resources to create or produce their own.

4.1 A few examples

In so short an overview we can look only at one or two examples of

textbook language. Taken at random, two Mathematics textbooks currently in use in Black education might serve to illustrate language which, firstly, mystifies the subject and, secondly, by contrast, allows for exploration of concept meanings by readers.

Example 1 is a Std 9 & 10 textbook used commonly in White and Black schools. It makes no mention of the language and concept formation difficulties likely to be encountered, but systematically begins each section with definitions, in standard mathematical language, eg:

"A function is a special kind of relation. If, with each element x of set X, there is associated in some way exactly one element y of set Y, then this association constitutes a function from X into Y and y is a function of x." (Gonin, Archer, Slabber Nel, undated, 28)

The mathematical rigour is impeccable, but nowhere in the text is there any discussion of the linguistic meaning of 'function' and its special meaning in Maths. For second language learners using this book, which I understand they do widely by prescription, there is perhaps little opening for exploration of the possible meanings of the concept "function", nor suggestions as to how it can be placed in a context of meaning specific to Maths. It is a crucial concept, misunderstanding of which leads to compoundable error and consequent demotivation of students. Mathematics is, after all, a symbolic language, the codes of which are verbal and numerical. But the numerical values are empty unless connected by verbal means. The clearer the verbal connectors, the clearer the symbolic forms become.

Example 2 is a very recently published Maths textbook for Std 6. On the topic of "rational numbers", as with all other topics covered in the book, there is an inductive method of sharing and negotiating concept meaning by starting with everyday examples, pictorially illustrated in cartoon form, which are verbalised in simple language, carefully graded for Std 6. The question "What

is a rational number?" is posed and then the basis for exploration in meaning is laid. The process ends with a derived definition, built on the eg's provided. An exercise in worksheet form follows, allowing the learner to translate the verbal definition into pictorial, spatial forms. (Taylor & Myburgh,1985:46.)

In example 2 there is ample opportunity for the teacher to become part of the exploratory process with the students, and share in the humour of the cartoons and drawings.

Example 3 is a Std 3 Geography textbook which is one of the few that adopts a more holistic approach, listing, as a teacher's guide at the end of the book, basic concepts, key words, possible activities and attitudes. An e.g. illustrates this: (quoted very selectively here)

Syllabus	Basic Concepts	Key words	Activities/skills	Attitudes	Aids
coal	Energy, trade	shaft	Map-reading, graphs	pollution	Atlas

(Early, Henning Holmes & Roberts, (1980:168)).

This approach integrates the curriculum by showing, in each section of work covered, how language and activities can be explored to link one subject or topic with another. Language is always the link used. The teacher is empowered richly through this guide to forge these links through pupil-centred work.

A non-South African text, "Concepts in Science" (USA) reveals its authors to be very mindful of the language of Science and the need to clarify concepts well as a preliminary to engagement in the process of scientific observation and experimentation. Six pages of key concept terms are listed with definitions which include the phonic spellings of the tongue twisters, for eg.:

"bacteria(bak.tir'e,e), single celled, non-green plants, which can cause disease, 116 (refers to text items)"

Then, if one reads p.116, there is a clearly written discovery-based approach to understanding:

"If you go for a walk in the walks, take along a small, covered plastic jar. When you come upon a stream or a pond, scoop up some of the water. Get some plants and mud, too...."(Brandwein etal, 1980:116)

The differences between the above text and many of our own Science and Biology textbooks are quite marked, the main one being the close adherance in our local texts to systematically ranked syllabus items compared with the American example's free and theme/ topic-based approach devoid of slavish syllabus following. There is great care taken with the language and its sounds in the US text, unlike many of our own that cling to more formal, academic presentation formats, which tend to stultify the language somewhat.

The language of textbooks is a topic for extensive research in this context and cannot be adequately treated here. Suffice it to say that the value of the textbook in creating ways for the teacher to use language creatively with students is grossly underestimated. Writers and publishers could place much greater stress on concept formation, the ways words can be sounded and on the peculiar language forms encountered in, say, History, with its reliance on past tense and subjunctive forms. Rather than seeing the textbook as an explication of the syllabus, could we not recreate it as a key to understanding the concepts, forms and meaning potentials of the language used in communicating its selections from the curriculum?

5. HOW AND WHERE DO WE INTRODUCE LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM?

We have considered several aspects of policy-making, implementation and practice regarding LAC in Black education. The questions

remain: "How do we do so, and where do we intervene most appropriately in the system?"

LAC has hardly permeated the entire educational establishment in South Africa. Indeed, there have been many pourings of scorn on the mention of the idea at language teachers' conferences. Yet conversations with Science educators, particularly, will regularly expose the LAC issue - "the real problem in Science Education in Black schools is language" is a cry I have heard repeatedly, particularly in relation to INSET work. There is clearly a powerful imperative to do more than talk.

It seems to me that LAC is a process essentially located in the area of English as a Second Language, as it is widely labelled in South Africa, but which I prefer to call TESOL - Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Given that, in the last decade, there has been a near consensus Black school commitment to English medium instruction, the assive problem of improving teacher competence in English has engendered numerous TESOL organisations throughout SA. Most of these TESOL bodies focus more on the teaching of English as a subject per se; few have explicit LAC objectives and programmes. There is a great need for all TESOL-related organisations to suspend their complex ideological wrangles and try to find ways of presenting a unified case for the explicit inclusion of LAC in all curricula, not only in Black schooling.

Presumptuously, perhaps, I should like to offer the following proposals for initial discussions at such an historic gathering. This agenda is by way of summing up, then, the main thrust of points made earlier in this paper. Such a gathering of necessity should have amongst its audience DET and other education department policy makers, curriculum planners, inspectors and school principals, as well as training college rectors and lecturers. Any attempt to introduce LAC would obviously need their conversion to the idea of LAC above all others. Such conversion would, I suggest, flow from arguments emerging from the following proposals:

5.1 Policy changes required at national level in terms of curricula planning to include a holistic approach to LAC. Such an approach needs to be highly explicit in terms of directives to teachers to promote LAC throughout their teaching programmes.

5.2 Ways of implementing LAC at classroom level, particularly by blurring subject boundaries at secondary level to allow for thematic teaching of concepts across the curriculum. LAC cannot work in a vertically ordered curriculum; it needs lateral distribution across subject specific classifications, not within these.

5.3 All teacher training needs as a matter of urgency to include LAC programmes at all levels.

5.4 All in-service training of teachers, particularly secondary teachers, should likewise focus strongly on LAC.

5.5 A national language teachers' curriculum development and materials development centre should be established, with its major role being that of catalyst in the development of LAC on a national scale.

Publishers, TESOL organisations, educationists and academics could work together on research and materials development projects which could, in turn, supply training colleges and INSET centres with much needed resources.

6. CONCLUSION

There will, no doubt, be many cynical rejoinders to the issues and proposals discussed in this paper. Essentially LAC is a political matter in that it cannot begin to operate without explicit, politically sanctioned directives from above. But in the classroom, which is where education and the curriculum are given life and process, LAC gives freedom to teachers and students alike to explore the resources of their individual creativity and meaning potentials in the real world. Mike Torby, an ardent advocate for LAC, puts it thus:

"Once the teacher becomes conscious of the way language and learning interact, then he can place the processes of learning in the hands of the pupils. Not only by explaining to them the public demand of precis, essay or science learning, but by making them conscious of the underlying processes, he gives pupils a power over their own learning which has enormous consequences not only for education, but for the lives they will lead..."

"A teacher who begins to see that language is the core of learning and therefore of the entire educational process is forced to recognise that learning does not only occur because he causes it to."(Torbe, 1978:68)

That this paper addressed the topic of LAC in Black education should not be taken as implying that DET schools lacked what White schools have in operation: far from it. There is a need for all school systems to meet together in common purpose to explore ways of implementing LAC in ways which might, perhaps, blur and dissolve the classifications and boundaries that sectionalism and specialisation have engendered.

Lastly, this paper, together with many others at this conference, is one written and delivered by a White academic about problems of language and learning in Black education. I, for one, am deeply conscious of my unintended role of spokesperson for those who should, preferably, be arguing the case presented above. Arguably it is because of the lack of attention to LAC in second language teaching contexts that this ironic situation arises.

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DIE MILIEU BINNE DIE SKOOL

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DIE MILIEU BINNE DIE SKOOL

1. INLEIDING

Die aspek van die onderwerp waarby ek my gaan bepaal, is die milieu waarin taal beoefen word in die skool en die invloed wat dit op die taal, op die sprekers en op leer en onderrig het.

Ek wil in die eerste plek "taal" en "Swart onderwys" nader preisiseer. My data is versaamel oor "Swart onderwys" beoefen in hoër primêre skole in KwaZulu. Met "taal" word verwys na Engels wat as medium van onderrig in hoër primêre skole gebruik word en veral die Engels wat deur die onderwysers gebesig word.

Die teikengroep sal dus eerstens kortliks beskryf word. Tweedens sal die wyses waarop data versaamel is, beskryf word. Vervolgens sal die data wat versaamel is onder die volgende hoofde aangebied word:

- Probleme wat in skole ondervind word
- Gehalte en vlak van opleiding wat onderwysers geniet het
- Faktore wat onderrig en leer beïnvloed
- Ontwikkelingstand van leerlinge
- Leerlingbehoeftes

2. TEIKENGROEP

Data is oor die volgende teikengroep versaamel:

- die 6 186 hoërprimêreskoolonderwysers wat Sts. 3 - 5 onderrig. 544 het in die stedelike skole rondom Durban gewerk, 47,4% was manlik; 52,6 was vroulik.

3. WYSES WAAROP DATA VERSAMEL IS

3.1 Die volgende publikasies oor soortgelyke navorsing is geraadpleeg:

Lanham, L.W. 91966) Teaching English in Bantu primary schools.

Rodseth, J.V. (1966) The Molteno Project.
The Teachers Academic Upgrading Programme (TAUP) in Bophuthatswana (1982)
Bophuthatswana elementary education upgrading project (1982).
Freer, D. (1982) English in Soweto: a slender life-line to a wider world.
Teachers' English Language Improvement Project (TELIP) (1983)
Duminy, P.A. (1972) Language as medium of instruction with reference to the situation in Ciskeian secondary schools.
Holderness, W. (1975) A study of language problems in S.A. education with special reference to the learning of English as a second language in Black schools.
Piek, G.C. (1979). The training of Black teachers in Africa with special reference to Lebowa.
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Tan, John, C. 91970) English language teacher training in developing countries (Kenya).
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3.2 Observasie in Hoër Primêre skole in KwaZulu (4-21 Julie 1983).

Dertien skole is op ewekansige basis gekies. Vyf-en-sewentig lesse van 61 onderwysers is waargeneem in die skole.

3.3 In-diepte onderhoude

Gestruktureerde in-diepte onderhoude is gevoer met 20 onderwysers.

3.4 Vraelyste aan Hoër Primêre onderwysers

Aan 500 van die 6 186 hoërprimêreskoolonderwysers (8,08% van die universum) wat op ewekansige basis geselekteer is, is vraelyste gestuur. Drie honderd drie-en-dertig van die vraelyste is terug ontvang (66,6%). Van hulle was 9,3% stedelike onderwysers, 35,4% het akademiese kwalifikasies laer as st. 8 gehad, 77,3% het pro-

fessionele opleiding van ten minste 2 jaar gehad, 47,4% was manlik, 52,5% was vroulik; 51,05% was onder 30; 48,95% bo 30.

3.5 Taalvaardigheidstoets. (GAD-1 toets)

Brendan Carroll se General Advanced Test om kommunikatiewe "performance" te toets, is gebruik. In ooreenstemming met huidige tendense in taalonderrig toets dit kommunikatiewe gebruik (use) eerder as die tradisionele formele korrektheid (usage) en spesifieke eerder as algemene taalvaardighede.

Omdat dit op toetslinge se opvoedkundige en professionele behoeftes gebaseer is, is dit meer ekonomies as vorige tipes toetse, het dit 'n hoër motiveringsfaktor en is dit meer waarskynlik dat dit die verlangde vaardighede toets. Dit is gestandaardiseer en word in baie lande gebruik om kommunikatiewe kompetensie te toets.

Toetslinge se prestasie word op 'n 9-vlak skaal aangedui. 'n Beskrywing van elke vlak (band) word in 'n "performance" beskrywing gegee en kan met die teiken "performance" vergelyk word. Die navorser het vlak 8 as die vereiste vlak vir hoërprimêreskoolonderwysers se taalvaardigheid beskou. In addendum 1 word 'n voorbeeld van vlak 8-taalvaardigheid aangeheg.

3.6 Opstelle van onderwysers

As deel van die taalvaardigheidstoets het onderwysers opstelle oor hulle onderwyssituasie geskryf. Dit het data gelewer oor

- hulle skriftelike taalvaardigheid in Engels
- algemene taalfoute
- hulle belewenis van die onderwyssituasie.

4. PROBLEME WAT IN SKOLE ONDERVIND WORD

4.1 Fisiese geriewe

Die groot tekortkominge wat op hierdie gebied ondervind word, maak dit moontlik een van die grootste bydraende faktore tot ontoereikende onderrig. By die 14 skole waar in KwaZulu observasie gedoen is, is die volgende omstandighede waargeneem:

Fisiese eienskappe	Aantal skole	n = 14
Baie stukkende vensters	9	
Vervalle geboue	2	
Gepleisterde, ongeverfde mure	10	
Geen omheining	6	
Sementvloere	12	
Geen plafonne	9	
Uiters ontoereikende swartborde	6	
Geen kaste	7	
2 afsonderlike lesse gelyktydig in een lokaal gegee	1	
Geen hulpmiddels of stimuli teen die mure	10	
Geen toiletgeriewe	6	
Stoflaag oor alles	9	

Die oorheersende indruk van die leermilieu is dus van 'n vervalle, neerdrukkende, onstimulerende leermilieu waar onderwysers nie die basiese middele het om leer te laat plaasvind nie.

Maghoo, Collet en die Bophuthatswana Elementary Project meld soortgelyke omstandighede in skole in KwaZulu, Transkei en Bophuthatswana.

4.2 Onderrigtoerusting

Onderrigtoerusting is veral van belang omdat dit nou verband hou met didaktiese tegnieke.

In 8 van die skole was daar nie genoeg banke vir die leerlinge nie en het tot 5 leerlinge ingedruk gesit in 'n tweesitplek bank. In 6 skole was daar óf geen swartbord nie óf een van om en by 3 x 2 vt waarop skrif met moeite deur leerlinge gelees kon word. In 7 skole was daar geen kaste waarin apparaat of boeke gehou kon word nie en in 10 was daar geen hulpmiddels in die klas of stimuli teen die mure nie.

In die opstelle het 54,3% van die onderwyserrespondente gekla oor die gebrek aan biblioteekgeriewe, beide vir hulleself en leerlinge, die gebrek aan naslaanwerke en beweer dat baie van hulle leerlinge selfs nie die basiese skryfbehoeftes soos potlood, pen en papier het nie.

In nie een skool was daar 'n biblioteek nie, slegs 5 het 'n administratiewe lokaal, soos 'n kantoor, gehad. Die invloed wat hierdie omstandighede noodwendig op die didaktiewe strategieë moet hê, sal later bespreek word.

4.3 Teksboeke

Probleme rondom teksboeke is van veelerlei aard. Eerstens het min leerlinge die voorgeskrewe teksboeke. In die 14 skole waarin waargeneem is, het in 11 skole minder as die helfte van die leerlinge teksboeke gehad. Van die 333 onderwyserrespondente, het 49,2% beweer dat net die helfte van hulle leerlinge teksboeke gehad het. Onderwysers word dus genoop om die teksboeke op te som, op die bord te skryf sodat leerlinge dit kan afskryf. Die gevolg is die uiters stadige pas waarteen onderwysers vorder met die werk.

Tweedens is teksboeke dikwels óf nie geskik óf nie van goeie gehalte nie. Lanham, Rodseth, Vivian van die SELR projek het almal die gehalte van Engelse teksboeke ontoereikend gevind. Onderwyserrespondente het beweer dat die vlak van die teksboeke nie by die taalvaardigheidsvlak van die leerlinge gepas het nie. Dit geld veral van die inhoudsvlakke. Drie-en-tagtig komma vyf persent van

die onderwyserrespondente het beweer dat hulle die Wetenskap, Aardrykskunde en Geskiedenisboeke nie begryp het nie.

'n Gepaardgaande probleem is die feit dat teksboeke nie gebaseer is op die behoeftes van die spesifieke teikengroep nie, maar voetstoots oorgeneem is van andersoortige teikengroepe bv. leerlinge in Wit skole.

Derdens voel onderwysers dit as 'n sterk leemte aan dat handleidings vir die teksboeke nie beskikbaar is nie. Veral vir die inhoudsvakke soos Geskiedenis, Aardrykskunde en Wetenskap beweer 18,3% van die onderwyserrespondente dat hulle nie handleidings het om hulle te help nie.

4.4 Leerling-onderwyserverhouding

Die De Lange-verslag meld 'n 48,47:1 leerling-onderwyserverhouding; Mej. Maghoo stel dit op 49:1. In KwaZulu was daar in 1983 16 986 primêreskoolonderwysers vir 876 423 leerlinge, wat 'n verhouding van 51,5:1 behels.

Tesame met die tekort aan lokale wat daartoe lei dat afsonderlike klasse soms in een lokaal aangebied moet word en die tekort aan banke, veroorsaak hierdie leerling-onderwyserverhouding 'n situasie waarin individualisering en leerlingwerksaamheid onmoontlik is.

4.5 Taalmedium

Engels is van st. 3 die offisiële medium van onderrig in skole in KwaZulu. Engels word van Sub. B as taal onderrig. Geen meting van st. 3-leerlinge se vaardigheid in Engels was bekombaar nie maar leerlinge wat individueel aangespreek was, kon nie vrae soos

"Where is your home?"
"Have you come far?"
"What does your father do?"
"In what standard are you?"

verstaan nie.

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Een-en-twintig komma ses persent van die onderwyserrespondente het beweer dat st.3-leerlinge die teksboeke nie kon verstaan sonder hulle hulp nie. Dat onderwysers vir st.3 gevolglik genoodsaak is om hoofsaaklik deur medium van die moedertaal te onderrig, was die indruk wat die navorser gedurende die waarneming verkry het. Ses-en-tagtig komma vyf persent van die onderwysers het in die vraelyste erken dat hulle die vakinhoud in die MT onderrig. Dit het die verdere gevolg dat leerlinge nog 'n jaar van onderrig in die amptelike medium van onderrig verloor en die bose kringloop verstewig word.

Hierdie begripsgaping skyn die mees bepalende faktor vir die oneffektiwiteit van onderrig in Swart skole te wees. Dit word vererger deur die feit dat die onderrigmedium ook vir die onderwysers 'n tweede taal is wat hulle nie met soepelheid beheers nie. Dit is gevolglik nie vir hulle moontlik om te daal tot die begripsvlak van die leerlinge nie. Sewe komma agt persent van die onderwyser respondente het beken dat hulle die MT as medium van onderrig gebruik omdat hulle nie eenvoudige Engels kan gebruik nie.

4.6 Onderwysers se swaar onderriglas

Verskeie van die probleme hierbo bespreek, naamlik

- groot leerlinggetalle
- gebrek aan fisiese geriewe en teksboeke wat noodsaak dat die onderwysers alle leerstof moet opsom, laat afskryf en self vir die leerlinge moet laat leer,

veroorsaak dat onderwysers se las onhanteerbaar word. Onderwysers noem ook die volgende faktore wat hulle werklas baie vergroot:

- Die leerlinge se voorbereiding in die junior primêre fase is nie toereikend nie;
- die voorbereiding van die notas is baie tydrowend;
- die leerlinge is op te veel verskillende vorderingsvlakke wat baie individuele aandag aan te veel leerlinge noodsaak;
- hoërprimêreskoolonderwysers spesialiseer nie. Hulle moet te veel

vakke aanbied wat te veel voorbereiding verg, en
- onderwysers beleef ook dikwels die probleem, dat geen geskikte akkommodasie beskikbaar is nie. Hulle moet óf in 'n hut sonder geskikte ameublement tuisgaan óf lang afstande per bus reis.

4.7 Gebrek aan ondersteuning vanuit die gemeenskap

Nege-en-sewentig komma agt persent van die onderwyserrespondente het die volgende probleme vanuit die gemeenskap ondervind:

- Die gemeenskap was verarm en kon geen bydrae tot die onderwyssituasie maak of leerlinge tuis die nodige studiefasiliteite, soos 'n plek of selfs lig om hulle tuiswerk te doen nie. Baie kon ook nie die nodige skryfbehoeftes en teksboeke koop nie;
- ouers het onderwysers nie ondersteun deur toe te sien dat leerlinge tuiswerk doen en die skool gereeld bywoon nie;
- ouers het min waarde aan opvoeding geheg en dus tot geen positiewe motivering by leerlinge bygedra nie;
- onderwysers het min waardering ervaar; eerder kritiek;
- sterk tradisionele gebruike is nie bevorderlik vir onderwys nie, bv. die kind se tradisionele rol as onderdanige teenoor die onderwyser se rol as volwasse outoriteitsfiguur lei tot passiwiteit aan die kant van leerlinge en laat geen interaksie toe nie. Dit laat leerlinge selfs nie toe om tuis by 'n tafel te sit en studeer in die teenwoordigheid van volwassenes nie, en
- leerlinge se eng verwysingsraamwerk vergroot die taak van die onderwyser. Hy moet meer verduidelik en is meer aangewese op hulpmiddels wat nie beskikbaar is nie.

Een onderwyser som die situasie as volg op: "The main problem I have experienced in teaching is that there is no teacher parent relationship."

4.8 Gebrek aan samewerking van leerlinge

Agt-en-twintig komma twee persent van die onderwyserrespondente ondervind dat hulle nie genoegsame samewerking van leerlinge kry nie. Hulle meld die volgende vorms van negatiewe leerlingreaksie -

- leerlinge is ongedissiplineerd en opstandig
- hulle doen geen voorbereiding of tuiswerk nie
- hulle is ongemotiveerd
- hulle is passief, kommunikeer nie, werk nie saam nie
- hulle gee geen aandag nie.

4.9 Oorwegende jeugdigheid van onderwysers

Die ouderdomsverspreiding van onderwyserrespondente, soos blyk uit die volgende tabel, hou verskillende implikasies in:

Ouderdomsgroepe van onderwysers	% van HP onderwysers	n = 333
Tussen 20 - 30	51,05	
31 - 40	12,9	
41 - 50	13,8	
51 - 60	6,9	

1. Dat daar 'n skielike vinnige toename was in die aantal Swart onderwysers wat opgelei is. Dit stem ooreen met die syfers gepubliseer deur Piek (1979 : 43). In 1965 was daar 34 042 Swart onderwysers in die RSA. In 1975 het hulle toegeneem tot 69 107.

2. Tweedens dui dit op 'n hoë uittreesyfer uit die onderwys na 30. Hoewel statistiek hiervoor nie beskikbaar was nie, beweer onderwysers in die opstelle dat baie ontevrede is oor hulle salarisse en die onderwys verlaat om tot die nywerhede toe te tree.

As in ag geneem word dat daar 'n positiewe korrelasie is tussen onderwysers se ouderdom en hulle taalvaardigheid in Engels, dan is hulle oorwegende jeugdigheid wel 'n probleem vir die onderrigsituasie.

4.10 Gebrek aan ondervinding

Gegewens oor onderwysers se ouderdom korreleer met syfers oor jare van ondervinding:

Jare ondervinding	% van HP onderwysers	n = 333
-1 - 10	63,96	
11 - 15	11,4	
16 - 20	7,2	
20+	16,2	

Die grootste persentasie onderwysers is dus minder ervare. Indien die tydperk 10-20 jaar ondervinding as die voordeligste in onderwysers se loopbane beskou sou word, sou slegs 17 % van die onderwyserrespondente in KwaZulu kwalifiseer.

As verder in ag geneem word dat daar 'n beduidende korrelasie tussen onderwyservaring en vaardigheid in Engels bestaan, het die gebrek aan ervaring nog groter betekenis.

4.11 Gebrek aan studiegeleenthede

By baie van die onderwysers bestaan daar 'n positiewe ingesteldheid teenoor verdere studie soos die feit dat 65,2 % van die onderwyserrespondente besig was met een of ander vorm van studie, hetsy vir 'n professionele diploma, hetsy vir 'n graad, aandui. Dit hang saam met die gebrek aan vertroue wat 10,2 % van hulle in hulle kwalifikasies uitgespreek het.

Nogtans is omstandighede vir baie van hulle nie gunstig vir verdere studie nie. Vier-en-vyftig komma drie persent kla dat daar geen biblioteekgeriewe, geen naslaanboeke beskikbaar is nie. Baie werk in skole wat so afgeleë is dat posstukke hulle nie gereeld bereik nie.

4.12 Onderwysers se motivering

Verskeie faktore het 'n negatiewe uitwerking op onderwysers se motivering:

4.12.1 Teleurstellende resultate van onderrig

Baie onderwysers meld hulle ontnugtering en teleurstelling wanneer die eksamenresultate bewys is watter geringe aantal leerlinge die werk bemeester het. Die ontnugterende ontdekking tydens eksamens is 'n duidelike indikasie van die gebrek aan kommunikasie wat daar dikwels tussen onderwyser en leerlinge bestaan. Onderwysers ervaar dan ook dat ouers hulle verkwalik vir swak eksamenresultate terwyl die ouers self geen verantwoordelikheid geneem het om die studies van hulle kinders te bevorder nie.

4.12.2 Die gebrek aan vertroue in hulle kwalifikasies hierbo vermeld, is ook 'n faktor wat bydra tot die swak motivering van onderwysers.

4.12.3 Laastens ondermyn die gebrek aan ondersteuning uit die gemeenskap ook die onderwysers se motivering.

4.13 Onvoldoende finansiering van Swart onderwys

Hoewel min onderwysers dit noem, is dit klaarblyklik, soos Collet en Holderness beklemtoon, 'n belangrike rede vir die agterstand in Swart onderwys. Die ontoereikende fisiese fasiliteite moet direk daaraan gewyt word.

5. Die gehalte en vlak van onderwysers se opleiding

Hierdie aspek van die onderwysers se milieu ressorteer na regte onder die vorige afdeling omdat dit een van die duidelike en mees belangrike probleemareas van die skoolmilieu uitmaak.

5.1 Akademiese kwalifikasies

Die akademiese kwalifikasies van alle onderwysers in KwaZulu was soos volg in 1982:

st. 8 en laer	87,2
st. 10	7,85
Graad 12	

'n Nadere ontleding van die kwaliteit van die eksamenuitslae het die volgende informasie gelewer:

Simbole wat in die skool-eindeksamen behaal is	% van onderwysers	n = 125
B - 70	,7	
C - 60	1,5	
D - 50	19,8	
E - 40	74,0	
F - 30	3,8	

Simbole wat in st. 5 behaal is, was heelwat beter.

n = 180

A	,6
B	1,1
C	8,3
D	63,3
E	26,7

Relevant vir hierdie ondersoek is die simbole wat hulle vir Engels behaal het in Matriek:

B	1,5
C	3,7
D	22,4
E	69,4
F	3,0

en in st. 8

B	1,6
C	8,7
D	44,3
E	24,6
kan nie onthou nie	20,8

5.2 Professionele kwalifikasies

Onderwysers se professionele kwalifikasies was soos volg

n = 333

PTC (2 jr)	76,9
PTD (3 jr)	3,6
Geen	15
Ander	4,5

Alhoewel die De Lange-verslag se aanbeveling dat onderwysers 'n minimum akademiese kwalifikasie van Matriek en 'n minimum professionele opleiding van drie jaar het, as departementele beleid aanvaar is, voldoen slegs + 4 % van praktiserende onderwysers aan hierdie vereiste.

Die implikasie van hierdie tekort word meer beduidend as in gedagte gehou word dat daar 'n sterk korrelasie gevind is tussen die akademiese en professionele kwalifikasies van onderwysers en hulle taalvaardigheid in Engels.

5.3 Taalvaardigheid

Die faset van hulle opleiding wat waarskynlik die bepalendste is vir die wyse waarop hulle hul taak uitvoer, is hulle vaardigheid in die medium van onderrig, nl. Engels. Gemeet op Brendan Carroll se 9-band skaal vir taalvaardighede het die onderwysers se vaardigheid in Engels soos volg vertoon:

Band	% van respondente	n = 333
4	3	
5	25,8	
6	57,3	
7	9,9	
8	,3	

Band gemiddelde 6,14

Brendan Carroll beskou band 7 voorvereistes vir 'n onderwyser wat Engels as tweede taal moet onderrig, maar vir onderwysers wat Engels as eerste taal sowel as al die ander vakke in die medium van Engels moet onderrig, is minder as band 8 as minimumvereiste onaanvaarbaar. (Sien addendum 1)

Respondente het verder 'n gemiddelde van 42,6 behaal in die toets wat die volgende vaardighede gemeet het -
vereenvoudiging
logiese rangskikking van sinne
uitsoek van hoofgedagtes.

Die vaardigheid waarin die minste sukses behaal is, is in die vereenvoudiging van sinne. Hierdie bevinding is veral betekenisvol. Die leerlinge se swak beheersting van die taalmedium verg besondere vermoëns van hulle onderwysers om te vereenvoudig indien die kommunikasiegaping oorbrug moet word. Hieruit blyk dat onderwysers nie daaroor beskik nie.

Faktore wat onderwysers se taalvaardigheid beduidend beïnvloed het het geblyk die volgende te wees:

Ouderdom - die jongste ouderdomsgroepe het die swakste gevaar.
Onderrig deur die medium van Engels het dus skynbaar 'n positiewe effek op taalvaardigheid.

Professionele en akademiese kwalifikasies -
Beter opleiding het gepaard gegaan met beter taalvaardigheid.

6. MEES ALGEMENE TAALPROBLEME VAN ONDERWYSERS

1. Veral in die opstelle kom die merendeel van die foute nie op mikrovlak, met ander woorde in verband met basiese taalstrukture, voor nie, maar op makrovlak, dit wil sê, met betrekking tot die boodskap. Daar was veral min "concord" foute. Dit is waarskynlik die neiging om hoogdrawende taal te gebruik wat dikwels tot makrovlak foute aanleiding gegee en totale verlies van betekenis veroorsaak bv.

"I hope to add some meaningful exigencies to the education of our youth".

2. Tipiese makrovlak foute was die volgende

2.1 Verkeerde gebruik van skakelwoorde

2.1.1 Verkeerde skakelwoorde

"I congratulate you for having such good drivers considering the one I saw".
"It was 19h00 <u>because</u> the driver was travelling <u>in</u> a normal speed."

2.1.2 Weglaat van skakelwoorde

"Another problem there was no school apparatus"

2.1.3 Oortollige skakelwoorde

"Though teaching is one of the best jobs but there are problems".

2.1.4 Betreklike voornaamwoorde

"They are from poor parents whom they fail to finance them".
"Teaching is a good profession which I think you can only choose it".

2.2 Onlogiese sekwensie

"I go to school having myself fully prepared and by this being able to work hand in hand with my pupils".
"The waiters were kind in spite of the good food and advised me to write to you with my complaints".
"I have never before had a comfortable journey on SAR which up to now I have found to provide excellent service".

2.3 Lexis

Woorde skyn dikwels vir effek gekies te word sonder inagneming van hulle betekenis, byvoorbeeld -

"More heritage to his future so as to earn better living to the present quest of his childhood".

"Such enjoyable are through your potentialities and industriousness of knowing that comfort precedes interest".

"The first sequence of discoverning in teaching came after giving previous class questions particularly which were answered the way I thought".

"Our transport was moderate, nor speed nor low".

7. FAKTORE WAT ONDERRIG EN LEER BEÏNVLOED

Die onderskeiding tussen probleme in die skoolmilieu en faktore wat onderrig en leer beïnvloed is eintlik kunsmatig, want elke probleem hierbo bespreek, is bepalend vir die kwaliteit van onderrig en leer, veral omdat die didaktiese strategieë wat deurgaans gebruik word die noodwendige gevolg is van die onderskeie toestande wat in die skole geld.

So gee die volgende faktore direk aanleiding tot die didaktiese tegnieke wat waargeneem is -

- die groot klasse wat individualisering en leerlingwerksaamheid feitlik onmoontlik maak
- die gebrek aan teksboeke en skryfbehoeftes wat leer tot die klaskamer beperk en tuiswerk ondoenlik maak
- die onbemeesterde medium van onderrig wat kommunikasie in die klaskamer uitskakel en die onderwyser forseer om hom te wend tot papegaaiagtige herhaling en inprenting
- die stadige pas waarteen onderrig plaasvind en nog verder indi-

vidualisering teëwerk
- die tradisionele rolle van onderwyser en leerling wat werklike interaksie tussen hulle in die klaskamer inhibeer.

Die didaktiese tegnieke wat dus oor die algemeen in skole waargeneem is, was:

Didaktiese tegnieke	% van onderwysers n = 75
Outoritêre, onderwyser oorheersde nie leerling gesentreerde onderrig	100
Leerlinge passief, min taal interaksie/leerlingdeelname	100
Klein hoeveelheid leerstof aangebied en dikwels herhaal	75
Koorherhaling van onderwyser se woorde	64
In-'n-koor-aflees van die swartbord	64
Taal en handboek te moeilik; nie deeglik verduidelik nie	64
Onderwyser toets nie leerling se begrip nie	34,6
Onderrigpas te stadig	26,6

Die lespatroon wat mees algemeen voorgekom het, was die volgende:

Onderwyser vertel die hooffeite.
Onderwyser skryf opsomming van die les op die bord.
Leerlinge herhaal die opsomming koorgewyse.
Onderwyser toets/toets nie vir begrip nie.
Leerlinge skryf notas af.

Die feit dat hierdie onderrigpatroon ook in stedelike skole waar die fisiese omstandighede baie gunstiger is, voorkom, dui daarop dat dit nie uitsluitlik aan fisiese omstandighede toe te skryf is nie.

Dit stem ooreen met die bevindinge van Vivian, Freer, die Bophuthatswana Elementêre projek, Maghoo, Lanham, McAdam.

Die "choral parrotting" is saam met die gebrek aan kommunikasie in die tweedetaalmedium, waarskynlik die twee faktore wat die grootste bydrae lewer tot oneffektiewe leer in die skole en vorm saam 'n bose kringloop. Die onderwyser gryp na herhaling omdat hy besef daar is min kommunikasie en die herhaling verbloem weer die feit dat daar nie kommunikasie is nie.

Nog meer teleurstellend is die Engels onderrig wat waargeneem is. Die mees algemene metode wat waargeneem is, was die tradisionele grammatikale metode waar taalreëls ("usage") onderrig is in plaas van gebruik ("use").

- Onderwyser gee definisie van struktuur, bv. byvoeglike naamwoord.
- Onderwyser verduidelik reëls oor die gebruik van die byvoeglike naamwoorde.
- Onderwyser sit voorbeeld op die bord.
- Kinders doen oefeninge mondeling.
- Klas herhaal die korrekte antwoorde koorgewyse.
- Geen kommunikatiewe interaksie.

Geen kommunikatiewe taalonderrig word dus beoefen nie. Daar was geen blyke dat onderwysers kennis gedra het van, of opgelei was om sodanige taalonderrig te gee nie. Dat hulle oor die nodige taalvaardighede beskik het om dit aan te bied, is verder ook te bevraagteken.

Indien aanvaar word dat 'n T2 "acquire" word deur gebruik en nie geleer word (Krashen 1982) by wyse van paradigmas en reëls nie,

dan moet dit as een van die grootste bydraende faktore beskou word waarom leerlinge die taalmedium nie bemeester nie.

8. ONTWIKKELINGSTAND VAN LEERLINGE

8.1 Lae prestasiepeil

Geen toetsresultate of vorderingverslae van leerlinge was bekombaar nie. Data is hoofsaaklik verkry uit verwante literatuur en uit observasie.

C.T. Verwey (1981) toon met die volgende syfers die oneffektiwiteit van primêre onderwys in KwaZulu aan:

1. Die hoogste persentasie herhalers is in Sub A:
   1978 - 18,5 %
   1979 - 19,3 %
   1980 - 18,6 %

2. Die grootste arbeidsvloei na die ekonomie vind plaas van die semi-geletterde en skaars geletterde fases nl:

	(Geen onderwys	6 320
	(Sub A - st. 1 - (ongeletterd)	22 810
1979	(sts. 2-4 (kwalik ongeletterd)	22 026
	(st. 5))	423

Rodseth (Collet 1980:3) het bevind dat Swart primêreskoolleerlinge nie slaag om te leer lees nie en dat dit die grondliggende oorsaak is vir hulle gebrek aan vordering. Pogings om hulle leesvermoë in Engels te verbeter, het aangetoon dat hulle aanvangslees in die MT nie geslaag het nie. Die Britse "Breakthrough to Literacy" aanvangsleeskursus is aangepas vir gebruik in Suid-Afrika en word tans met welslae in Ciskei en Bophuthatswana gebruik.

3. Gebrekkige bemeestering van medium van onderrig:

Die volgende bewerings van onderwyserrespondente impliseer dat leerlinge Engels as medium van onderrig nie bemeester het nie:

Vakke waarin leerlinge teksboeke nie verstaan nie	% van respondente	n = 333
Wetenskap	65,8	
Aardrykskunde	62,5	
Geskiedenis	60,4	
Wiskunde	32,1	
Gesondheidsleer	32,1	
Landbou	25,8	

Redes waarom onderwysers Engels nie as medium van onderrig gebruik nie	% van respondente	n = 333
Leerlinge verstaan hulle nie	42,6	
Sodat hulle beter kan verduidelik	16,5	
Onderwysers kan nie eenvoudige taal gebruik nie	7,8	

In hulle opstelle het 21,6 % van die respondente (n = 333) beweer dat st. 3-leerlinge hulle nie kon verstaan nie en nie die medium magtig was nie. 83,5 % was van mening dat leerlinge nie die teksboeke sonder hulle hulp kon verstaan nie. 48,7 % van die inspekteurs het beweer dat leerlinge selfs die vereenvoudigde notas van die onderwysers nie kon verstaan nie.

Die navorser se indruk gedurende die waarnemingsperiode was dat onderrig in st. 3 hoofsaaklik in die MT plaasgevind het. Selfs 2 Engelse lesse wat geheel en al in die MT aangebied is, is waargeneem. 83,5 % van die respondente het erken dat hulle die inhoud van die leerstof in die MT verduidelik het.

Die inspekteurs bevestig in hulle vraelys wat die onderwysers beweer. Hulle gee die volgende redes aan waarom onderwysers die MT gebruik:

1. Leerlinge verstaan nie Engels nie.
2. Onderwysers se beheersing van die medium is ontoereikend.
3. Leerlinge vind die oorgang van MT na Engels moeilik.
4. Onderwysers het nie fasiliteite om hulle eie vaardigheid te verbeter nie.

9. LEERLINGBEHOEFTES

Uit die voorafgaande navorsing kan die volgende gevolgtrekkings gemaak word oor die behoeftes van die leerlinge. Dit toon duidelike ooreenkomste met die vereistes wat vir die Bophuthatswana Elementary Upgrading Project gestel word.

1. 'n Doeltreffende leermilieu.

Om vir die Bophuthatswana Elementary Upgrading Project geselekteer te word, moet skole hulle verbind om die volgende verbeterings aan te bring:

- Die klaskamer verf
- oop rakke aan twee kante van die klaskamer aanbring
- 'n aansteekbord en 'n skryfbord aanbring
- die aanbevole boeke, materiaal en leerhulpmiddels aankoop
- die gespesifiseerde ameublement aankoop
- diefwering aanbring.

2. Doeltreffende skoolorganisasie.

In Bophuthatswana word die volgende vereistes gestel:

- Een sessie alleenlik word toegelaat
- klasse word beperk tot 50
- alleenlik leerlinge van 5_ jaar word aangeneem.

3. Deeglik opgeleide onderwysers - vertroud met moderne onderrigtegnieke en deeglik meester van die medium. In die Bophuthatswana projek word onderwysers/esse opgelei in

klaskamervoorbereiding
skoolgereedheid
klassifikasie en gereedheid
toetsing en evaluering
groepwerk
voorbereiding van hulpmiddels
gebruik van Breakthrough in Setswana
konsepvaslegging in Wiskunde
voortgesette rekordhouding.

4. Geskikte leeskursusse, teksboeke geskoei op die behoeftes van die teikengroep en nie pasklaar kursusse nie.

5. Kommunikasie tussen onderwysers en leerlinge. Om die bestaande situasie te verbeter doen verskeie moontlikhede hulle aan die hand:

1. MT onderrig

2. Invoeging van 'n ekstra jaar om leerlinge die medium te laat bemeester

3. Versnelde taalonderrigkursusse aan beide leerlinge en onderwysers om hulle die taal te laat bemeester.

Om te beweer dat, indien hierdie behoefte nie vervul word nie, daar beswaarlik van onderrig in die primêre skool iets tereg gaan kom, lyk in die lig van bogenoemde navorsing, nie na 'n oordrywing nie.

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LANGUAGE IN BLACK EDUCATION:
THE ENVIRONMENT OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL

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LANGUAGE IN BLACK EDUCATION: THE ENVIRONMENT OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL

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1. INTRODUCTION

Success or failure in language learning does not depend on intelligence per se, but also in methods used and facilities available.

Educationists in the past assumed that as long as a child has adequate vision and hearing and all his mental capacities, he would learn a second language without difficulty. It has since become necessary to reconsider second language learning and all the factors influencing it.

As Trudgill,P. (1974; pp. 31-32) would put it that language is not simply a means of communicating information about the weather or any other subject. It is also a very important means of establishing and maintaining relationship with other people; and it is very much a social phenomenon.

2. LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

The acquisition of a second language by a Black child in South Africa represents one of his most remarkable achievements. Hence educationists and researchers are caught up currently in a determined attempt to elucidate on the best methods and approaches to second language learning. There is a tendency on their part to seek new models.

If the foreign language is going to be used as a medium of instruction in later years, then it is necessary to establish it quickly. Many important issues therefore have to be considered.

The introduction of a foreign or second language is not simply a matter of curriculum and method, there are other serious motivational aspects to be considered. Among others, it must be viewed against the social background of the population served by the school system.

A study of language totally without reference to its social context inevitably leads to omission of some of the more complex and interesting aspects of language and to the loss of opportunities for further theoretical progress.

People in natural settings often succeed in acquiring language while similar persons in classrooms typically fail to make any notable progress. The learning of English by Blacks often occur in formal circumstances and artificial milieu like classrooms, and usage is then limited to formal situations which more often than not do not reflect the eventual practical language using situations. On the contrary, they acquire their first languages in a somewhat natural, spontaneous or even unconscious way.

Stern (1967,p.19) comments "... listening and comprehension come before utterance in the first language, therefore it is thought that in second language learning listening should also precede speaking and both should come before reading and writing, or it is noted that rational or abstract logical learning cannot be imposed on the child when he learns his first language, consequently it should not be imposed either for second language learning in early years".

A natural language environment is necessary for optimal language acquisition; and children are said to be best language learners. This principle cannot apply for L2 learning by Black children in South Africa. They don't have early experience of L2. The language of communication at home is different from the language of instruction at school.

These children then have pedagogical problems and learning difficul-

ties which manifest themselves as a result of different sorts of lexical, syntactic, phonological or/and even semantic interference. They experience the so-called "code-switching", "code-mixing" and "home-school language switch".

To these children a second language is a definite handicap and it has a permanent negative effect on intellectual development because there's a direct relationship between language competence and formal education. They often must think in one language and speak in another with the result that they become mentally uncertain and confused.

This lack of proficiency in English or L2, makes them suffer educationally. There is what Reagan, T. (1982, p.50) refers to as "language barrier" which term is employed to suggest that the lack of a common, mutually understandable language form will make the learning difficult.

South Africa has more than one Black language spoken indigenously within the country. The syntax of these languages is not the same as that of English or Afrikaans. There are also even extensive lexical and semantic dissimilarities between these Black languages and English and Afrikaans. For instance, in some of the Black languages, clicks are a common feature and this feature will definately influence their learning of English.

To solve this problem of multilingualism, an artificial language such as "gangsters language" is adopted by the youth as lingua-franca. Lingua-franca here refers to a language which is used as a medium of communication among people who have no native language means in common. Therefore, English, Afrikaans, Setswana, Zulu or Xhosa, this "gangster language" is the native language to no one. It is difficult for a Black child to maintain all these languages in balance. This child uses his vernacular and this "gangster language" more than English or Afrikaans in his daily life. He would not normally have the opportunity to learn English/Afrikaans in childhood because he does not have contact with the native speakers of English. There's no reinforcement by the out-of-school

environment as such. He'll meet English or Afrikaans for the first time at school. This will cause him to encounter difficulties because for each object or referent he must learn two or three words.

The child will struggle to keep apart the language he speaks at home with his parents, the language he speaks in the street and the playground with his play mates which is mostly a conglomeration of all the African dialects and sometimes even English and Afrikaans words feature; and the standard English and Afrikaans he learns at school. At times one finds an interplay of three languages in his utterances, e.g. A JY WIL FIGHT?
a - This is a Tswana interrogative prefix.
jy wil - Afrikaans
fight - English

J.J. Swanepoel in his article "Urban 'Slang' in composition" which he wrote for In-service Training Centre in Educamus (December 1978, pp 8-9), comments on the "conglomeration" of languages or dialects used mostly by Black youth : he refers to it as "slang", it is also commonly referred to as "tsotsi" or "gangster" language. He states that this so-called gangster language is not the language of a group or nation. It changes from time to time and could be called "circumstantial communication medium", it never develops into a fully fledged language because it has no officially recognised orthography and no set of rules as to how it changes from time to time according to the whims of the speakers and also according to the changing circumstances, in some places Afrikaans forms the grammatical base of the language while in others English could play a more important role.

Language is also the most important manifestation of a culture. It is intimately a part of ones identity. A Black child lives in a world that is a combination of two or three or even more cultures: The predominantly English and Afrikaans worlds in which he should work when he leaves school and his own society which has nurtured him in his early years of development. To be a complete person he

must be able to function in both languages. But there are no opportunities to make him feel that he can enter the English or Afrikaans speaking worlds.

The physical setting and occasion of the language activity will have some consequences. It is difficult for the individual to belong to two or three communities simultaneously. There are often cultural, religious and moral differences that lead to strain and identity conflict. To be accepted in two or three communities means that one has to shift back and forth in language, behaviour and attitudes. This can be an enormous burden for the individual and can even have a bearing on ones emotions. Some children will then opt for one of the three worlds at the risk being rejected in others.

In play groups, for instance, when children play together, they often use the "gangster" language, referred to earlier. These childhood companions ridicule others into learning this language. Some of their conversations particularly ones including jokes and adventures, are so much juicier when this language code is used; therefore a newcomer fearing to be the butt of a joke will learn this language in self-defence.

In the meantime, in the classroom the teacher requires the standard form of English or Afrikaans, and if any child keeps bringing "slang" either in oral work or written exercises, as is always the case, again we find a conflict between the playground conversation which belongs to one speech variety and the classroom language which belongs to another. Haugen (Filipovic (ed) 1972, p. 12) correctly puts it when he says: "Bilingualism as a social problem is a conflict of interest between language communities; bilingualism as a personal problem is the transfer of that conflict into the mind and heart of the individual who participates in both communities."

At home there is no practice nor encouragement to use English because parents, who more often than not speak only their native

language, will have adamant insistance on the child speaking their native tongue at home. This lack of English usage at home is because of low or no academic achievement and low or no English proficiency on the part of parents. The child usually makes little or no contact with English until he enters primary school. By this time he already possesses the habits of listening and speaking which belong to another language entirely unrelated to English. These habits will influence the way in which he will pronounce English and the way he will construct English sentences. He will definately commit many violations and errors. (Refer to the example a jy wil fight) This indicates that the use of English does not wholly cut him off from the use of his mother tongue; and some of the mistakes occur because he falls back on the linguistic forms of his native language, and this interference from his first language and vice versa, is because of his lack of knowledge of the second language.

Language, therefore, varies not only according to the social characteristics of the speaker but also according to the social context in which he finds himself. Also, social distance may have the same sort of effect as geographical distance.

In the Black community there's no English or Afrikaans environment to support the school language; no interaction with native speakers of these languages in early life hence the distance between them and these languages when they encounter them at school.

In dealing with problems of interference, therefore, it is important to consider the sociolinguistic conditions in which interference occurs. Fishman (1969, p 150) cautions: "It is possible that the interference is due to the social environment rather than to the influence of the bilingual native language habits."

John and Horner (1971, p. 169) also state that Weinrich includes factors affecting interference which are not linguistic in nature: The speaker's facility of verbal expression, his relative proficiency in each language, the ability to keep the two languages separa-

tely, the prestige of each language, the attitude of society towards each language and towards the culture of each language's community.

3. LANGUAGE AND SITUATION

Language and situation are inseparable. It is possible to predict a great deal about the content, functions and style of language used in a particular place. The rural-urban contrast is thus relevant in second language acquisition and proficiency, and this aspect cannot be neglected.

Living in an urban area helps to guarantee some exposure to English and at times sufficient to establish a reasonable degree of bilingualism. Black parents working where English or Afrikaans is spoken may try to inject a bit of those languages into their children by speaking those languages to them.

Although exposure comes first from schooling for urban Blacks, some additional informal variables are available, which present some source of exposure to English or Afrikaans. There are social and economic opportunities to hear and to use these foreign languages.

As a result of this high degree and informal manner of exposure the level of English or Afrikaans proficiency is higher in the urban areas than in the rural areas where contact with these languages is on a formal level in schools, and where often the presentation is not efficient.

Informal variables referred to above include:

MASS MEDIA

Urban children can learn a lot from radio programmes, television programmes, movies and newspapers.

SONGS

In learning the words of some popular songs by popular stars, many

young people also gain a considerable amount of English vocabulary pronunciation and other grammatical aspects. Bearing in mind of course that the pronunciation may be missed at times. Like one popular song in our school days which was known to us as "Pesheni; forty two" whereas the actual words of the song were "Patience and fortitude".

PROXIMITY TO CITIES and shopping at supermarkets also offer them a chance to communicate in these foreign languages.

In rural areas there is relative linguistic isolation. Those who do not go to school usually do not learn English or Afrikaans because exposure to these languages only comes from schooling. So, little or no informal opportunity is available to learn these languages.

The medium of instruction in circumcision schools is mother tongue. Those who go to these schools therefore never come into contact with English or Afrikaans. From circumcision schools there's a demand to go and seek work. Most of them will opt for working in the mines; and communication breakdown in the mines is bridged by the language code called "fanakalo" or "kitchen language" which is also a conglomeration of various dialects like the "gangster language" referred to earlier.

Other peculiar problems related to the extent to which the Black child's environment affects his progress of second language learning are:

CROWDED HOMES: In these homes circumstances are such that children cannot do any homework whatsoever.

LOW INCOME AND UNEMPLOYMENT: Because of this factor, many parents run "shebeens" to raise income to maintain their families; and a child in a "shebeen" cannot do any extra reading on his own because the atmosphere is not conducive to reading at all.

LITERATURE: In most homes the only literature available is the child's school books, if there are any.

PRE-SCHOOL CENTRES AND NURSERIES: In most areas there are no such centres, where the centres are available, not all parents can afford to pay for their children to attend them. Therefore working mothers resort to retaining elder children at home to care for their siblings. They start school at a later age and are un-motivated. The tendency is that they sooner or later drop out of school with very little or no proficiency in a second language.

In rural areas, after school, boys must help in looking after cattle while girls must engage in cumbersome home chores like drawing water often from a considerably long distance, collecting firewood and preparation of meals.

By the time they finish it is late and apart from the fact that they'll be tired, it will be difficult for them to do any reading or writing under the poor lighting of a fire wood.

In conclusion one would observe that, in making young Black children learn a second or a foreign language, it is difficult to expect a full understanding of the complex social, political and educational motives prompting this task. One would infer, that these children require less explanation, but a more eager and positive attitude towards the contact with the language, culture and native speakers of the target languages.

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THE NEW JOINT CORE SYLLABUSES FOR ENGLISH
OPPORTUNITIES, PROBLEMS, SOLUTIONS

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THE NEW JOINT CORE SYLLABUSES FOR ENGLISH OPPORTUNITIES, PROBLEMS, SOLUTIONS

1. WHY THE OLD SYLLABUSES WERE SO THOROUGHLY REVISED

The new syllabuses seem very different from the old. They have been completely reworded, and the layout gives them an altogether altered appearance. However, the changes are not so much in content as in approach. Most of what the new syllabuses require was required by the old, and the new requirements can be seen as implicit in the main guiding principles which the syllabuses have honoured for some years past. Our focus, then, must be on the changes in approach which the new syllabuses signal.

1.1 As I remember, four considerations weighed heavily with the Joint Core Syllabus Committees for English First and Second Language in undertaking the revisions.

1.1.1 Changes in our understanding of language learning (and so of language teaching) arising from research done in various parts of the world in the 60's and 70's. These have made us more learner-centred, less positivistic, and far more purpose-orientated: far more interested in communicative ability.

1.1.2 A plea for more specification from representatives of education departments. This was made partly because most teachers welcome definite guidance, and partly to give teachers something to appeal to in negotiating with seniors who have rigid and untenable ideas about language teaching.

1.1.3 A generally recognised need for practicality, so that the goals of English study are given the priority they deserve. Too often requirements have been spoken of as though we were setting them for our own gratification rather than because they reflect what is needed for full participation in South African life. The syllabuses are intended to meet real needs, and to give teachers some licence to meet the needs arising from the circumstances of the local community.

1.1.4 A concern that the new syllabuses should have the minimum of technical jargon in them, and that they should read well in straightforward English. As the committees tried to carry out this resolve, they recognised how often educationists lean on high-sounding words to conceal their own fuzziness about important issues. Having to try to say it straight is an ongoing discipline for all of us.

1.2 Of course, other things influenced the committees by the way. There was no deliberate effort to write a notional/functional syllabus or a communicative syllabus, but with syllabuses broadly of these kinds available from elsewhere, it is not surprising that some of their characteristic modes of expression came readily to the editors' pens. The developing or emerging character of our country inevitably played some part in the committees' thinking, too. There is some urgency to give a responsible edge to education: To sharpen what we offer and so give pupils a fair chance to compete for jobs, and to participate fully and responsibly in the national life.

2. THE OBJECTIVE OF THE NEW SYLLABUS

It will be plain by now that the main objective of the syllabus is the learner's communicative competence. We are concerned with the learner's competence at the complex business of making sense in real situations, not with measuring in how far the learner matches up to some ideal and specified right answer. There are many routes to the same destination, and we should be glad to see our learner driving safely along one of them. The word communicative implies that the learner is expected to read situations accurately and respond to them appropriately. It does not mean that we are willing to accept minimal success in getting an obvious point across. And competence suggests managing satisfactorily, with the emphasis on management or strategic use of the linguistic resources available.

2.1 However, competence is a term easier used than defined. Competent to do what?

"Competence for personal, social, educational and occupational purposes," says the Second Language syllabus, specifying what was implicit before. The same can be said for First Language. Pupils need English for personal convenience and enrichment: for practical purposes in circumstances here and around the world where English is the lingua franca, and for access to the amazing variety of literature, and full enjoyment of films and other entertainment in English. They need it for social purposes, so that they can move with ease in the company of others to whom they relate socially in various ways. They need it for educational purposes, for participation in classes, presentation of work, and informed use of the library. And they need it for occupational purposes, because there are few occupations which do not involve some measure of contact with the public, and some ability to follow instructions in English. Place these needs against the background of a South Africa where there must be a high degree of social mobility, particularly for young Black South Africans, and they all become more acute.

2.2 In any case, competence is a dynamic concept: We may continue to improve our competence, even in our first language, to the day we die. This has three important implications.

2.2.1 It calls us back inescapably to the basic business of education: We have to be concerned with giving impetus to an ongoing process of learning. We may, of course, have certain quite specific tasks in mind at any one stage - specific things are what provide the impetus - but, if we lose the ongoing perspective, we shall be denying our pupils the start in life that a true education should give them. We have to stimulate our pupils to reach out and experiment with techniques of communication and to develop their own sense of what ways of putting things are likely to be useful to them. Only then will they have developed the learning skills to see which aspects of the language are going to be useful to them in new situations, along with the social sense to shape strategies for coping with those situations.

2.2.2 It shifts our focus from whether our pupils know certain things to how each learner manages with the language at his or her disposal - "how" meaning both how well, and in what way.

(a) This concern means that we have to build on the resources our pupils already have. It means that they establish the learning agenda or timetable, sometimes with radical implications for our teaching. This is particularly so in Black education, where most pupils have English as the teaching medium (even though it is generally a second language), and where it is widely used in public life as a lingua franca.

(b) This concern also forces us to see that the notion of carefully graded learning is neither practical nor efficient. We do not learn by fitting together language units as though we were assembling a model aeroplane. Nor do we learn to build good paragraphs by converting simple sentences to complex or compound and linking them together. In fact, for many reasons, learners often start with the more complex syntactic and stylistic structures and work down to the simple. Because they already know another language, second language learners always have relatively sophisticated ideas about style at their disposal, and because the second language is prominent in their environment, they find themselves in social situations which make sophisticated demands on their ability to communicate. Forcing them to start at an arbitrarily determined step one and to proceed step by step (and in lockstep at that) may well have the effect of divorcing the classroom from real life, and preventing them from drawing on the English resources which their environment affords.

(c) Finally, our interest in how the learner meets real situations in English also means that we have to take him or her seriously as a person. This disposes of the idea that second language learners lag a few years behind their first language contemporaries in what ideas they need and want to entertain in English. Such patronization may seem unbelievably absurd, but it is reflected in official

lists of recommended reading which rate books suitable for first language learners in St 6 as right for second language learners in St 9, as if the latter were mentally retarded. Another form of this patronizing assumption lies behind the statement that Shakespeare is too difficult for L2 learners. In fact, we learn by making sense, and we do so most efficiently when our interest is engaged.

2.2.3 The dynamic concept of competence also affects our assessment of pupils. We have to mark positively - to see what is achieved. This is not easy, as it removes all the security of a rule of thumb. We have to read what is produced, weighing up in each case what the learner has demonstrated of his ability to engage with an issue using English. The complication is that real engagement may lead to pupils' exposing their weaknesses, whereas dishing up "what teachers want" may result in error-free but totally unengaged writing. Clearly, errors are significant. They distract the native speaker, and probably lower his expectations. But they should be assessed both in terms of what is attempted and of the extent to which the attempt succeeds - never as of obsolute importance in their own right. In a sense, what we are measuring is potential, and someone who is self-critically engaged is likely to carry on learning.

3. OPPORTUNITIES PRESENTED BY THE NEW SYLLABUSES

In general the new syllabuses establish a commonsense freedom for the teacher and the class - a freedom which carries important responsibilities with it. And although it will be more difficult for educational administrators to keep what goes on in the classroom under surveillance, it will now be easier for them to establish a valuable professional relationship with those working under them. Perhaps one ought also to say here that what could be checked up on in detail were usually peripheral to the main aims of the syllabus in any case.

3.1 The first major opportunity which the new syllabuses offer is the chance to relate English more closely to the context of the pupils.

The L2 syllabuses state that: "Teachers must create a climate within which pupils can use English with interest, purpose, and enjoyment." This is one way of doing so. The resort to the immediate normally has as one of its major effects an altered perception of the language, with several interesting effects. It should heighten pupil interest because the language will seem more relevant to their interests and needs. It should increase pupil awareness of the amount of English that is used in their environment, and so of the resources available to them as active learners. And, through English Across the Curriculum teaching, it should have the effect of integrating their education. None of these things is likely to happen without conscious commitment and effort on the part of the teacher. The dead hand of "textbook" English is only likely to be lifted when assignments are set within a specified context so that the learner can see the point of what he is being asked to do.

3.1.1 Relevance, as we all know, is not so much a matter of where subject matter is drawn from as it is a matter of perception. Something is relevant to a pupil only when he can perceive connections between it and his current concerns. In these terms, mediaeval poetry may conceivably be more relevant to a young Sowetan than the lyrics sung by Bruce Springsteen. Nevertheless, it is true that people often find it easier to relate to things which come from their familiar environment. The language teacher may find himself starting with an examination of local slang and dialect, and getting pupils to collect specimens, not to laugh at but to record as valuable in themselves. It may also be useful to make a great deal of use of the local newspaper which will have in it news about people who are known and events which have already been discussed. Further, there is no point in ignoring the ways in which English is being used for public purposes, and it may be useful to examine pamphlets and documents from political movements active in the area, considering their appeal and their effectiveness. Finally, it may be useful to have some local or at least regional writers for study or recommended reading. The important point is that the new syllabuses give teachers more freedom to choose material in keeping with their circumstances at any given time and place -

freedom to respond to immediate needs and opportunities.

3.1.2 Many people claim that there is almost no English used in their area. While it is true that there are some areas where other languages dominate so impressively that they may seem to eclipse English, there is no place in South Africa where there is not a fair amount of English available in the environment. If people are unaware of it, their sense of English and the possibilities which it opens up will be reduced drastically. It would be helpful if the teacher knew where English was used (or could be seen to have a real presence) in the area. Even in areas where English is not often heard, there are newspapers, radio and TV - and there are state departments, banks and building societies which are obliged to have material in English. Perhaps classes can be given research projects on English as it is used in their area, reporting weekly for several weeks on what they have found. Local dialect should also provide some useful points of departure. And there should be time for reading some South African novels, stories, plays and poems. The sheer fact of having seen English as something real enables people to use what they have to hand.

3.1.3 It is also important for learners to see how and under what circumstances English is likely to be valuable to them. Given the expectations of social mobility in the community, the immediate context is not the only one likely to be relevant to learners. It is worth discussing this with a class to get them to define a few expectations and needs, and to use those needs as a basis for talking about appropriacy. Assignments set within a specified context are helpful in this regard, and work produced should, as often as possible, be evaluated for appropriacy by groups within the class.

3.1.4 The educated mind is one which makes connections, yet all too often the educational system compartmentalizes so as to make connections elusive and unlikely. Partly to counter this tendency, the new syllabuses encourage English across the curriculum work. The classroom is part of the learner's context, and bringing the whole classroom enterprise into focus in the language class makes for more efficient and better integrated learning, not only of the language,

but of the subjects concerned. The efficiency arises from the efforts of teachers of different subjects augmenting one another. The learning burden is thus reduced for the pupil and there is more time to tackle each item. The integration, in turn, leads to more sophisticated demands being made on language. Learners are alerted to a more sophisticated set of language needs, and so are more receptive to answers which their linguistic environment may suggest.

3.2 The new syllabuses provide substantial opportunities for group work. This brings relief in large classes and makes it possible for all pupils to participate more actively. But the opportunities it provides are not primarily strategic. Pupils need to become more alert to the social determinants of meaning, and of the extent to which meaning is negotiated rather than given. This sense is best nurtured in group discussion. Further, pupils need to develop criteria for assessing the tone and implicit message in what others say and write to them, as well as for judging the merits of articles and reports, and for monitoring their own output. These are all areas where learners have to feel their way, and small group discussion makes that kind of tentative exploration possible.

3.3 The emphasis on meaning in the new syllabuses should help reverse the trend to Gradgrindian factitia. With less and less credit given to what can be learned off by heart, teachers and classes will have the opportunity of working at meaning with a clear conscience. Grammar for grammar's sake is a thing of the past. In L1, some attention to grammar arises from the need for a more precise vocabulary for discussing language. In L2, grammar for its own sake and for the whole class is forbidden, except where its practical value can be shown. Setwork study, too, will have to be meaning oriented - an integral part of the whole programme of language study. The horrendous and time-wasting cramming of thousands of plot details should soon be a thing of the past. (Incidentally, it never was part of the syllabuses, but crept in as a condoned practice. The new syllabuses by others and amended. Then the finished product can be displayed. It does not take much imagination to think of other activities to add to these. The work

suggested here should take about two weeks, and in that time it should be reasonably easy to see that each person gets some pretty extensive language practice.

3.4.2 The teacher is free to follow up anything interesting. Should there be a dramatic tornado or a momentous train robbery in the vicinity, the class's programme can be altered to spend time on it - deciding what should be investigated, what will be necessary for the investigation, and how to report: a Composite report, a series of short talks, or a number of individual essays which have already been criticised in group workshops. Once a class has established a pattern of work at the beginning of the year, it is likely to go about its business purposefully and efficiently for each subsequent topic.

3.4.3 The teacher has more time to monitor problem cases and give them personal attention. As the class is not in lockstep, there is no reason for all pupils to be doing the same thing. It is also possible for the teacher to work with one group for a while, leaving the other groups to go about their business.

3.4.4 If a topic overlaps with what is being done in the geography class, say then it is possible to win more time for the activities and to have as an end goal a set of useful notes and resources.

4. SOME PROBLEMS WHICH MAY ARISE

4.1 A major concern in any education system is the adequacy of the teachers. Can the teachers of English cope, largely underqualified as they are? This question is too often asked rhetorically. Perhaps we should be asking how teachers can cope? However, before we do so, we should examine several real problems.

4.1.1 Most underqualified teachers are rigid in their ways. They lack the confidence to vary a programme or to allow for any agenda other than their own. To make up for their perceived inadequacies, they tend to be hypercorrect, so they are attracted by prescriptive accounts of language, and are deeply disturbed by any "permissive-

ness". Their rigid stance arises from a sense of moral duty - which is laudable enough - but they tend to acknowledge only one register and use it (often with unintentionally comic effects) in all circumstances. Unfortunately, some of them have even written textbooks. "My dear Dabulamanzi," runs a model letter from a Std 6 to a friend, "I do hope this finds you in good health and able to enjoy a well-earned holiday break. There is very little news from these quarters. My brother was consumed by a crocodile yesterday. We were very sad. With affectionate regards, Yours very truly, Begamevu Dlamini." Perhaps you recognise the style? Can you imagine the perpetrator of it teaching to the new syllabus?

4.1.2 Many underqualified teachers lack the linguistic competence to help others develop their skill. They know this, so they stick firmly to their own agenda, because that seems like safe ground. Any movement towards allowing pupils to reveal what they need next is viewed as profoundly threatening, and, in a real sense, as undermining the teacher's authority. Because they are expected to know it all, teachers are obliged to hide any weaknesses: in the circumstances, admitting to them would be admitting incompetence.

4.1.3 Inadequate professional preparation also leaves teachers without the organisational skills necessary to arrange class activities and to keep track of them. They are, in any case, frightened that a "buzzing" class will be viewed as undisciplined, and that they will be seen as having lost control. Ideas such as negotiated programmes and self-evaluation for pupils as part of their learning experience are utterly alien. Without some help, such teachers are likely, very soon, to land up in the chaos which they anticipate from the system. Such prophecies have a habit of being self-fulfilling.

4.2 This raises the problem of supervision. How does the principal or the inspector distinguish between chaos and profitable independent activity? And how can they be sure that some progress is made? This is a particular problem when they, too, have not kept up professionally, and so do not understand what should be done. This means that they are not free to treat teachers as colleagues, encouraging them and building up their confidence and expertise.

4.3 A further possible difficulty is that teachers of other subjects may either be impatient of an across the curriculum approach or very threatened by it. Many teachers - even well-qualified ones - are hesitant about exposing their methods to the professional gaze of colleagues.

5. SOME POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Changing an approach to teaching is a risky business, so the risks have to be calculated. I believe that the changes suggested in this paper are likely to bring about some improvement immediately, and substantial improvement in the long term. But they will not do so unless the education authority's commitment to them is quite plain.

5.1 There must be explicit policy statements which require implementation. This changes the question from WHETHER there should be change to HOW change should be brought about, and so makes people look for answers. Taking its cue from the syllabuses, departmental policy should make plain the communicative thrust of language study, the ban on grammar for grammar's sake (in L2 particularly), and the need for an across the curriculum approach.

5.2 Text books in all subjects must be selected very carefully to ensure that they conform with language policy. Most English language textbooks currently in use are likely to sabotage the best efforts of departments, because the exercises in them are based on unacceptable premises. Far from helping teachers, they are likely to lead them astray. Other textbooks should be written in acceptable English, and organised in such a way that they can be used without embarrassment in an across the curriculum approach.

5.3 There should be conferences for educational administrators so that they can reinterpret their professional relationship to the teachers under their supervision. Unsympathetic administrators are likely to thwart teachers in their efforts to teach as recommended.

Sympathetic administrators can be immensely helpful. To secure full co-operation, the conference should enable administrators to understand what is happening, and should address problems of supervision. There might well be some brainstorming as a prelude to workshop activity on problems envisaged and possible solutions.

5.4 Help must be provided for teachers. Teachers' anxieties must be allayed in some measure by immediate and ongoing help.

5.4.1 Principals should break the ice by chairing academic planning meetings on across the curriculum work. This should have the effect of making the English teacher a member of a team which has to implement a new policy. There is a real danger otherwise that the English teacher will be seen as trespassing. Detente should lead to more communication between colleagues and more professional discussion to the benefit of education as a whole.

5.4.2 Departments should organise regional (local?) in-service training courses at regular intervals. The emphasis should be practical, enabling teachers to develop the organizational skills they need and to establish their own re-orientation in preparing exercise material in workshops. Follow-up is important. The organisers should perhaps prepare teaching guides, incorporating the insights gained from the first round of workshops. The best of the exercise material should also be collected and distributed for use in schools. Teachers who have been involved in a course should attend update workshops a few months later when they will be able to expose the material they have developed to colleaguely criticism.

5.4.3 On their rounds, inspectors should be alert to teachers' needs, so that they can draw their attention to the guides and teaching material which may be helpful. This should enhance the professional status of the inspector as a senior colleague who knows what he is about.

6. CONCLUSION

A great deal of work is involved, but it is justified because of the size and nature of the task facing us, not only in Black education, but throughout the country. There will be many difficulties by the way, but if we can manage to effect some re-orientation, that in itself will enable teachers to look in new places for solutions. It should also alert them to their own language needs and enable them to draw on their environment in meeting them. Fortunately, as we have said, competence is a dynamic concept.

EKSEMPLARIESE WERKSDOKUMENT:

"SILLABUS VIR AFRIKAANS TWEEDE TAAL

HOER GRAAD STANDERD AGT TOT TIEN"

VAN DIE

DEPARTEMENT ONDERWYS EN OPLEIDING

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BESPREKINGSPUNT: Die sillabus vir Afrikaans Tweede Taal
Eksemplariese werksdokument: "Sillabus vir Afrikaans Tweede Taal Hoër Graad Standerd agt tot tien" van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding. Implementeringsdatums:

Standerd 8 : Januarie 1985
Standerd 9 : Januarie 1986
Standerd 10: Januarie 1987

1. INLEIDING

Die implementeringsdatums dui op 'n "nuwe" sillabus. Die rasionaal vir die nuutheid moet gesoek word in die strewe na 'n model waarin aktuele taalgebruiksvaardigheid eerder as die inoefening van strukturele vermoë tot uitgangspunt verhef word, 'n model wat 'n prototipiese vergestalting gekry het in die nosioneel-funksionele (NF) sillabusse wat in die sewentigerjare deur voor-aanstaande taalkundiges vir die Raad van Europa ontwikkel is. In die algemene toeligting tot bogenoemde departementele sillabus word dit dan ook gestel dat die benadering tot tweedetaalonderrig gerig behoort te wees "op die effektiewe gebruik van die taal en nie soseer op die inskerping van die kennis van taalvorme en taal-strukture nie". Daar wil dan ook weggekom word van die gefragmen-teerde onderrig van tradisionele sillabuskomponente as studieter-reine in eie reg: taalwerk, begrip, stelwerk, letterkunde. Van-daar die nuwe (ietwat verwarrende) verwoording van sillabuskompo-nente in terme van die taalvaardigheidspektrum:

- Luister en praat (Luisterbegrip)
- Lees en praat (Leesbegrip)
- Lees en skryf (Stilleestoetsing)
- Praat en skryf (Taalstudie wat lei tot praat- en skryfwerk)
- Lees, praat en skryf (Leeswerk/Letterkunde)

2. SITUASIE-ONTLEDING

So 'n ontwikkeling in die rigting van 'n kommunikatief-funksionele benadering tot tweedetaalonderrig dui op 'n welkome vernuwing in Suid-Afrikaanse kurrikulumdenke. Nou is dit so dat in die Suid-Afrikaanse onderwysgesprek daar selde onderskei word tussen sillabus en kurrikulum: tussen die lys van inhoude wat per jaargang onderrig moet word, enersyds en die voorarbeid wat gelei het tot die seleksie en ordening van daardie inhoude, andersyds. Laasgenoemde kurrikuleringsaktiwiteit grond essensieel in 'n wetenskaplike ontleding van die konteks of situasie waarbinne die inhoude onderrig moet word. Indien so 'n situasie-analise as 'n primêre kurrikulumbeginsel erken word, is die implementering van 'n nuwe sillabus sonder inagneming van die situasionele werklikheid 'n riskante onderneming, veral in Suid-Afrika en veral wat Afrikaans betref. Daar is byvoorbeeld sosiolinguistiese politiese probleme wat stremmend op die onderrig inwerk, probleme wat vanweë hulle komplekaiteit en wetenskaplike ontwykendheid nie hier behandel kan word nie. Binne-in die klaskamer is daar verder professioneel didaktiese probleme wat waarskynlik 'n deeglike bydrae tot die eersgenoemde groep probleme lewer. Nagenoeg 80 % Swart Afrikaans-onderwysers se kwalifikasies strek byvoorbeeld nie verder as standerd 8 nie. Die sterk punt van hierdie onderwysers lê op die strukturele en nie op die kommunikatief-funksionele terrein nie. Metodologies blink hulle uit in herhaling en drilwerk. Daar is 'n wanbalans tussen leerderpraattyd en onderwyserpraattyd. Leerderdeelname (afgesien van koormatige herhaling) is feitlik uitgesluit. Didaktiese soepelheid hang grootliks aan die moontlikhede wat die handboek bied. Taalgebruiksvermoë word gekortwiek deur taalverskeurings oor 'n wye spektrum. Van doeltreffende evaluering (veral buite die strukturele raamwerk) is weinig sprake.

Bogenoemde bedenkinge moet nie in terme van waardeoordele of as afbrekende kritiek gesien word nie. Dit was bloot enkele uitkomstes van 'n ondersoek wat deur die Eenheid vir die Onderrig van Afrikaans aan die RAU gedoen is en tans as Finale Verslag by die RGN dien. Dit gee 'n aanduiding van die situasie waarbinne

die onderrig van Afrikaans as tweede taal moet geskied en die implikasies wat dit inhou vir die opstel van 'n funksioneel kommunikatiewe sillabus. Om enkele voorbeelde te noem: Uit sy indiensopleidingsbedrywighede het die EOA gevind dat dit vir onderwysers 'n saak van eer en gesag is om grammatiese en literêre terminologie te beheers. In die nuwe leerplan vind 'n totale afskaling van terminologie plaas, met ander woorde dit wat die Afrikaansonderwysers wel beheers, is nie meer geldig nie. Verder blyk dit dat onderwysers baie huiwerig is om die mondelinge komponent tot sy reg te laat kom. Hiervoor is daar velerlei redes: die grootte van die klasse, die onderwyser se eie onvermoë tot funksionele taalbeheersing, die ontbreking van kommunikatiewe onderrig- en leerstrategieë (rolspele, groepwerk, ens.), die tradisionele gesagsverhouding in die klaskamer, die swak evalueringspotensiaal van praatvaardigheid, leerlinge se onwilligheid tot spontane kommunikasie in Afrikaans, ens. In die nuwe sillabus word juis die praatvaardigheidskomponent tot prioriteit verhef. Die Afrikaansonderwyser aan Swart skole staan dus voor 'n ernstige dilemma.

Voorafgaande wil geensins impliseer dat die status quo gehandhaaf moes word nie. Dit wil wel sê dat die beskikbaarstelling van 'n sillabusdokument of 'n paar uur se oriënteringsgesprekke nie 'n omwenteling in die onderrigsituasie sal teweegbring nie. Die konkrete deurwerk van 'n prototipiese "leerboek" tydens 'n indiensopleidingsessie sal moontlik 'n noodmaatreël kan wees, mits sodanige indiensopleiding voldoende geleentheid skep vir die bemeestering van nuwe kommunikatiewe onderrigstrategieë.

3. DOELWITTE BY DIE ONDERRIG VAN AFRIKAANS AS T2

Die onderhawige eksemplariese sillabusdokument stel as uiteindelike doelstelling dat daar beoog word om by die leerling die taalvaardighede (luister, praat, lees en skryf) so te koördineer en te bevorder dat hy

- in staat sal wees om Afrikaans spontaan as kommunikasie-

medium te gebruik, en

- die waarde van Afrikaans as die ander amptelike taal én as kultuurdraer sal besef en wil benut.

Ter verwesenliking van hierdie doelstellings word dan bepaalde leerdoelwitte uiteengesit onder die verskillende afdelings Luister en praat, Lees en praat, Lees en skryf, ens. Die leerdoelwitte wat onder Luister en praat aangedui word, behels byvoorbeeld die bemeestering van 'n omvattende reeks taalfunksies. Daar word egter geen aanduiding gegee van die nosies of leksikale eksponente waardeur hierdie funksies gerealiseer kan word nie, in welke vorm hulle in die onderrig aangebied kan word nie of hoe die onderwyser hoegenaamd die funksionele komponent in die klaskamer behoort te hanteer nie. Die dokument stel dus nie 'n program vir die onderrig daar nie. Hiermee beland 'n mens midde-in die problematiek van 'n sillabuskomponent sonder volledige kurrikulumondersteuning. Dit lei daartoe dat die dokument geen implikasies inhou vir die didaktiese verloop, die deelname van die leerders, die aktualiseringsgeleenthede, die toetsingsmoontlikhede, ensovoorts nie. Sonder om verder kommentaar daarop te lewer, kan die volgende kurrikulumdefinisie* vir oorweging gestel word: "'n Kurrikulum is geselekteerde en geordende onderriginhoude wat 'n program vir die onderrig daarstel waarin daar 'n funksionele samehang tussen situasie-analise, doelstelling, beplande leerervaring, aktualiseringsgeleenthede en evaluering aan te wys is."

4. 'N PROGRAM VIR DIE FUNKSIONELE ONDERRIG VAN AFRIKAANS

4.1 Een van die wesenlikste besware teen die praktiese deurvoering van 'n nosioneel funksionele sillabus is dat grammatiese sistematisering veel moeiliker is wanneer daar vanaf die funksionele na die strukturele beweeg word as andersom. 'n Mens verloor as't ware jou greep op die taalsisteem wanneer dit nie meer die vertrekpunt is nie. Hierdie probleem word vererger wanneer strukturele volle-

* Krüger, R.A. Beginsels en kriteria vir Kurrikulumontwerp, HAUM 1980

digheid die hoogste norm by onderrig en evaluering is: Al die woordsoorte met al hulle fonetiese morfologiese, en semantiese implikasies, al die ontkenningsmoontlikhede in Afrikaans, alle wysigingsmoontlikhede by die direkte en indirekte rede, al die verskyningsvorme van die lydende vorm, ensovoorts. Die onderwyser ly aan 'n kroniese skuldkompleks dat iets uitgelaat is, dat strukturele komponente nie in die regte volgorde afgehandel word nie of dat juis dáárdie meervouduitsondering in die eksamen gevra gaan word! 'n Doeltreffende deurvoering van 'n funksioneel kommunikatiewe sillabus vereis allereers dus die verwydering van 'n struktureel sistematiese kompleks, nie net by onderwysers en leerlinge nie, maar veral by inspekteurs, vakadviseurs en eksaminatore, want "backwash rules the teaching". Die strukturele onsekerheidskompleks sal egter nie uit die onderrigsituasie verdwyn as dit nie volledig vervang word deur 'n sekerheidsmodel wat tot in die laaste evalueringskonsekwensie sukses vir die leerling en onderwyser kan waarborg nie. Dit vereis 'n model waar die toetseenheid in die evalueringsituasie kongruent is aan die leseenheid in die onderrigsituasie.

4.2 'n Onderliggende strategie binne die NF-benadering is om te beweeg vanaf die funksionele taalaanbod of kommunikatiewe werklikheid na die taalstrukture en nie andersom nie. Die vertrekpunt lê dus by dié aspek van taal wat die leerling reeds in sy moedertaal beheers. Die swaartepunt lê by die betekenispotensiaal van die nuwe taal en die gebruiksmoontlikhede daarvan. Hierdie potensiaal kan egter nie verwesenlik word sonder die relevante woordeskat of leksikale eksponente nie. Die woordeskat sou op sy beurt egter geen beweeglikheid, veralgemenings- of oordragspotensiaal hê sonder die beheersing van 'n onderliggende sisteem nie. Die volgende verloop sou dus in mindere of meerdere mate in 'n NF-onderrigsprogram weerspieël kon word:

- 'n Samehangende taalaanbod (met illustrasies wat die grondgedagte eerder as die uiterlike handeling uitbeeld) waarin 'n aspek van die lewenswerklikheid tot uitdrukking kom: Op band of op skrif, gerig op die reseptiewe vaardighede van luister en lees, vaardig-

hede wat die senior sekondêre leerling reeds via sy moedertaal bemeester.

- Die semantiese ontsluiting van die taalaanbod: Verduideliking van woordbetekenisse, dialogiese bespreking van die essensiële inhoud, toetsing van begrip

- Die identifisering van taalfunksies, gesprekreëls, kommunikatiewe strategieë, ensovoorts binne hierdie taalaanbod: Word daar inligting verskaf, word daar uitdrukking gegee aan emosies, word daar rigting beduie? ensovoorts.

- Die identifisering van spesifieke nosies of uitdrukkings waardeur genoemde taalfunksies, gesprekstrategieë, ensovoorts gerealiseer word: Wat sê 'n mens in Afrikaans as jy kwaad is, as jy 'n pad beduie, as jy iemand voorstel? ensovoorts.

- Die identifisering van die woorde of leksikale eksponente wat die nosies ten grondslag lê: Woordeskatuitbreiding

  Die eksemplariese gebruikmaking van die betrokke leksikonitems om die grammatiese sisteem in Afrikaans te ontdek: Meervoudsvorming, verledetydsvorming, ontkenning, ensovoorts - met die inskakeling van sinvolle buite-kontekstuele voorbeelde.

- Die kommunikatiewe implementering van sowel die inhoudelike as die taalmatige impulse wat deur die taalaanbod verskaf is in klasgesprek, aangevul deur affektiewe belewing van die taal deur sang, taalspeletjies, ensovoorts.

- Die neerslag van bogenoemde in 'n relevante skryfoefening: 'n Paragraaf of verslag of opstel of brief oor 'n tema wat aansluiting vind by wat gelees is.

Hierdie verloopsmomente (wat elkeen 'n evalueringsmoontlikheid inhou) behoort binne 'n nosioneel funksionele "leseenheid" weerspieël te word. Dit is 'n onbegonne taak om nou al hierdie momen-

te te verantwoord of uiteen te sit. Daarom sal daar slegs kortliks gekyk word na die belangrikste "nuwe" komponent: Die inhoudelike komponent wat as vertrekpunt tot 'n reeks lesse kan dien.

5. 'N FUNKSIONELE VERTREKPUNT

5.1 Funksionele taalonderrig behels nie bloot die realisering van bepaalde losstaande taalfunksies nie. Dit behels die semanties, leksikaal, en grammaties fonetiese ontsluiting van 'n stuk geloofwaardige werklikheid. Taalonderrig neem dus nie meer sy vertrekpunt by strukturele komponente soos woordsoorte, die lydende vorm, die bevelsvorm, ensovoorts nie, maar by 'n reeks inhoude wat in die wydste sin van die woord kan voldoen aan die vereistes van taal-oor-die-kurrikulum, met ander woorde enige onderwerp of tema uit enige vakgebied is hier ter sake: Menseverhoudinge, oorlog en vrede, natuurrampe, universele waardes, besoedeling, gesondheid en siekte, liefde en haat, lugvaartontwikkeling, genadedood, egskeiding, robotte en rekenaars, ensovoorts. In terme van onder andere Krashen se monitorhipotese vind daar geen doelbewuste strukturele manipulering plaas nie, met ander woorde die inhoudelike taalaanbod wemel nie toevallig van verkleinwoorde, verlede deelwoorde, ontkennings, ensovoorts omdat een of ander struktuur pertinent aan die bod gestel moet word nie. Die enigste kriteria waaraan die taalaanbod moet voldoen ten einde as optimale
invoer te dien, is verstaanbaarheid, relevansie, interessantheid, betekenisvolheid en voldoende hoeveelheid, 'n taalinhoud met 'n hoë motiveringspotensiaal. Blootstelling aan en betekenisvolle ontsluiting van sodanige taalaanbod werk natuurlike taalverwerwing in die hand wat noodsaakliker is vir kommunikatiewe taalvaardigheid as doelbewus aangeleerde taalstrukture. Die taalaanbod wat tot taalverwerwing moet lei, moet inhoudelik aanvaarbaar wees vir die jeugdige van ons tyd. Die betekenisraamwerk (en dit sluit die optrede van die onderwyser in) waarbinne die taal aangebied word, sal grootliks bepaal of daar 'n affektiewe weerstand by die leerder sal wees teen die verwerwing daarvan.

5.2 Die kennismaking met die Afrikaanse letterkunde aan senior sekon-

dêre Swart skole vind tans plaas aan die hand van enkele boeke wat deurlopend vir 'n aantal jare voorgeskryf word: In matriek behels dit byvoorbeeld een prosawerk en 'n minimum van twaalf gedigte. Vir verreweg die meeste leerders is dit die enigste en finale kennismaking met die Afrikaanse literatuur, Afrikaanse denke, Afrikaanse mensbeskouing, ensovoorts. Dis te betwyfel of die leerder hieruit 'n konsep kan vorm van die wyse waarop die Afrikaans van ons dag gestalte kan gee aan universele menslikheid, menswaardigheid en alle ander waardes wat vandag besondere geldigheid verkry het. (Die feit dat 'n boek soos "Van eensame mense" (Elise Muller, 1954) vir vier jaar lank (tot 1985) onafgebroke voorgeskryf kon bly ten spyte van eksplisiet rassistiese geluide, spreek hier boekdele). Die funksionele benadering tot taalonderrig kan ten opsigte van hierdie verarming 'n verandering teweegbring: Die inhoudelike vertrekpunt kan naamlik 'n ondersteunende bydrae lewer wat betref die leerder se belewing van die Afrikaanse letterkunde.

Die ideaal sou naamlik wees dat van ons <u>beste Afrikaanse outeurs</u> (ook die omstredes) hierdie inhoude oor relevante temas sou voorsien. Hierdie inhoude kan naamlik in opdrag deur deskundiges of vooraanstaande skrywers opgestel word of daar kan met kopieregverlenings gebruik gemaak word van dele uit bestaande (moderne) publikasies. Dit sou doelvernietigend wees indien teksboekskrywers hierdie inhoude self wil skryf of probeer saamflans uit 'n onoorsigtelike reeks bronne, soos wat gewoonlik ten opsigte van "begripstoetse" of "leesstukke" die geval was. Die opstel van die eerste prototipiese funksionele leerboeke ten aansien van Afrikaans is in elk geval 'n baie verantwoordelike opgawe wat nie willekeurig op die vrye mark uitgekontrakteer behoort te word nie. Daar is groot behoefte aan sensitiwiteit in ons Afrikaanse onderriginhoude.

5.3 Uiteindelik bly dit die taak van die didaktiese taalkundige en toegepaste linguis (as teksboeksamestellers) om aan die hand van die relevante kontekste ("Sachtexte") doeltreffende taalkomponente op te stel om die noodsaaklike <u>kognitieve</u> inset te realiseer. Die nosioneel funksionele benadering het naamlik ook 'n taalsistematie-

se of kognitiewe leerdoelwit. Vanuit die inhoudelike leerdoelwit word daar beweeg na leksikale komponente en hulle strukturele samehang. Alhoewel toegepaste taalkundiges soos Krashen reken dat so 'n doelbewuste inset wat gerig is op die bewustelike aanleer van korrekte strukture en taalreëls slegs 'n redigerings- of monitorfunksie kan hê, mag dit in die onderrigsituasie nie agterweë gelaat word nie. Die doelwit van die Afrikaansonderrig is immers nie die bevordering van 'n kommunikatief funksionele gepidginiseerde Afrikaans nie, maar wel van aanvaarbare Afrikaans (wat nie beteken dat die eiesoortige gebruikstaal gestigmatiseer word nie). Daar is egter nou maar eenmaal 'n sosiale en professionele onverdraagsaamheid teenoor swak taalgebruik en die leerling moet daarteen beskerm word. 'n Geldige vraag wat in hierdie verband gestel kan word, is watter afmetinge hierdie strukturele oefeninge moet aanneem en watter rol (indien enige) terminologie byvoorbeeld behoort te speel. In hierdie verband sou teksboekskrywers hulle wel kon laat lei deur die aanwysings wat onder Praat en skryf in die onderhawige leerplan gegee word. Eksaminering sal egter uiteindelik die deurslag gee.

6. SLOTOPMERKINGS

Hopelik sal so 'n teoretiese betoog rondom die funksionele sillabus genoeg praktiese raakpunte tydens die algemene bespreking verkry. Dit behoort egter duidelik te wees dat, gesien in die lig van die besondere situasie rondom die onderrig van Afrikaans as Tweede Taal, dit nie toereikend is dat 'n nuwe sillabus aan die hand van 'n departementele dokument aangekondig en bekendgestel word nie. Die onmiddellike beskikbaarheid van 'n begeleidende handboek en die deurwerk daarvan tydens indiensopleidingsessies, is noodsaaklik. Die aard en opset van so 'n handboek is hierbo kortliks aangestip. Die geleentheid is nou daar om werklik met iets nuuts in Afrikaans vorendag te kom. Laat die leerlinge aan die hand van goedgeskrewe aktuele taalinhoude Afrikaans leer ken. Laat hulle ook vanuit diepgaande en sensitiewe Afrikaanse inhoude 'n kritiese ingesteldheid teenoor die geskrewe woord, 'n probleembewustheid en 'n verdraagsaamheid teenoor die medemens

ontwikkel. Waarom moet dit altyd die ander amptelike taal te beurt val? Die nuwe funksionele benadering bied die moontlikheid aan Afrikaans om op tweedetaalvlak opvoedkundig relevant te word. Dit kan naamlik daartoe bydra dat die leerling op verantwoorde wyse stelling inneem teenoor probleme in die werklikheid, teenoor homself, teenoor ander mense en teenoor die sin en betekenis van die lewe.

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THE REVISED 1987 SYLLABUS FOR BANTU LANGUAGES

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THE REVISED 1987 SYLLABUS FOR BANTU LANGUAGES

INTRODUCTION

In the invitation to read a paper at this conference Dr Mostert suggested that I address the following aspects of the above-mentioned topic:

(i) Why was the syllabus for the African languages recently revised?
(ii) What are the objectives of the revised syllabus?
(iii) What problems may be anticipated with the implementation of the new syllabus and what are possible solutions for these problems?

To these aspects of the topic I would like to add an additional point, viz

(iv) In, what respect does the 1984 Joint Matriculation Board Draft Core Syllabi for the individual African languages differ from the 1979 J M B Syllabus for all African languages?

The 1984 Draft Core Syllabi for the individual languages were supplied to the teaching departments where they were interpreted to suit their needs. The same procedure was followed in the case of 1979 syllabus which appeared in the Joint Matriculation Board Matriculation Examination Handbook for 1979 as well as the Errata to this handbook. It is advised that you read these documents in conjunction with this paper.

1. WHY WAS THE SYLLABUS REVISED?

No syllabus should remain unchanged. The expansion of knowledge and the changing requirements of people necessitate a regular revision of syllabi. In the case of the African languages the syllabus is revised in cycles of approximately 10 years. The last revision was the Errata to the 1979 edition of the Matriculation Handbook Part 2.

Apart from the cyclical aspect of syllable revision the teaching departments and educational practitioners submit applications to the J M B for the revision of some aspects of the syllabus.

In the case of Setswana Prof. Setshedi and Mr Malope had requested changes to the 1979 syllabus. Applications of this nature are usually submitted by moderators and examiners who are, for obvious reasons, well acquainted with the contents of a syllabus as well as the problems of the scholars and teachers.

In the case of the 1979 syllabus various individuals suggested that the syllabus was too vague and that a more detailed specification was needed. It was also suggested by Black educationists that the Bantu languages, as first languages, should be upgraded to a standard comparable to that of English and Afrikaans as first language.

2. WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF THE REVISED SYLLABUS?

In contrast with the 1979 syllabus the new syllabus differentiates between objectives as well as goals for the different subdivisions of the syllabus:

(i) To help the pupil to develop basic and general language skills and abilities which will enable him to communicate as effectively as possible.
(ii) To develop the pupils' abilities to express their ideas, thoughts and feelings effectively by means of language.
(iii) To introduce the pupil to the linguistic, literary and cultural aspects of his people in respect to the present, past and future.
(iv) To enrich the pupils' minds, to stimulate their thinking.

The general teaching and learning goals in respect of the 1987 syllabus are set out in detail and they deal with the three main parts of the subject matter, viz.

(i) Composition
(ii) Language study and usage
(iii) Reading and literature.

Each of these main parts of the syllabus was subdivided and goals were formulated for each. The following will exemplify how the composition was treated:

1. COMPOSITION

1.1 Oral composition

This section comprises listening skills and oral skills and goals were formulated accordingly.

1.2 Written composition

In this section the goals centered around (the) writing ability and comprise:

(i) Language skills
(ii) Composition skills
(iii) Skills of style

The amount of detail supplied by the 1987 syllabus can be studied by consulting the J M B Draft Core Syllabus for each of the African languages. In the case of the Draft Core Syllabus for Setswana First Languages Higher Grade the written composition is discussed on p. 10-14. Similar studies can be undertaken in respect of the other major sections of the syllabus, viz

Language study and usage
Reading and Literature

It should however be repeated that the Draft Core Syllabus of the J M B is re-interpreted and rephrased by the various Departments of Education. One can therefore expect that the objectives and goals of the future syllabus for the Department of Education and Training will differ from the Draft

Core Syllabus of the J M B and for that matter from any other Department of Education.

3. WHAT PROBLEMS MAY BE ANTICIPATED WITH THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NEW SYLLABUS AND WHAT ARE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS?

3.1 The 1979 syllabus of the J M B was vague in terms of goals and subject matter. This allowed teachers and writers of language textbooks a lot of room in the presentation of subject matter. With a more detailed syllabus stipulating the subject matter and examination requirements (i.e. the specification of how many marks are allocated to each aspect of the syllabus) there is no room for a haphazard teaching program. Teachers and pupils will have to be prepared in advance to cope with these detailed demands. The best way to prepare teachers is by

(a) timeous in-service-training (of teachers) in respect of the requirements of the new syllabus, and
(b) selecting and prescribing only those language books that will enable teachers and pupils to meet the demands of the new syllabus as effectively as possible.

This last point is extremely important because if schools are allowed a free choice of language books without professional advice from their Department of Education we might perpetuate the error that exists at the moment, namely, that teachers are given a fairly free choice from a number of books. The result is that both good and badly written textbooks are used simultaneously. If the examination statisticians were to look for a correlation between well-written textbooks and good results in the first language and vice versa, I am convinced it would be the nail in the coffin of those notoriously bad books that my students consistently complain about.

The purpose of a textbook is to enhance learning and not to prevent or retard it.

3.2 For the first group of Std 8 pupils commencing with the new syllabus in 1987 and writing their examinations three years later the Education Departments will have to put in a special effort to compensate for the fact that they were not exposed to the new syllabus in Stds 5, 6 and 7. This will also apply to the Std 8 groups of 1987, 1988 and 1989. The 1990 Std 8 group should have fewer problems as they were exposed to the new syllabus as from Std 5.

3.3 Examples of old examination papers serve an invaluable purpose in the normal preparation for an examination. Such old examination papers not only give an indication of the sequence of the subject matter but they also give an indication of: (i) the type of questions that may be expected, (ii) the degree of emphasis put on certain aspects of the subject matter, (iii) the regularity at which questions may be expected.

This is not a plea for exam-orientated teaching, but it is a plea for the official publication of a single model examination paper, compiled by the official examiners. This can be of crucial importance to both teachers and scholars. It should give them the necessary perspective on their studies. This is especially applicable if one bears in mind the number of inadequately trained teachers teaching the mother tongue.

3.4 The problem of inadequately trained teachers is very common in developing countries. Presently teachers with a degree and a second or third year course in one of the African languages frequently teaches other subjects. The first language, as is commonly argued by principals, can be taught by any teacher who is a mother tongue speaker. This was not possible with the 1979 syllabus and will be even less applicable to the new syllabus.

The amount of linguistic and literary theory prescribed by the new syllabus can only be taught by a teacher who has received post matric training in the first language. It is therefore of the utmost importance that teachers with training in African languages be assigned to teaching posts where they can render an invaluable

service. This is essential bearing in mind the matric requirements in respect of the first language.

It is not difficult to imagine what the result would be if an inadequately trained teacher has to teach the first language from a badly written textbook. The loss in man-hours (or is it scholar-hours?) will be appalling. The solution to these problems is to eliminate the retarding factors.

In the case of the teacher one could consider a televised upgrading course for teachers giving them entrance to an examination for which they may receive a diploma. Another possibility is travelling in-service training teams doing the essential upgrading.

In the case of the language books or textbooks the Education Department should aim to promote the use of those books that will cause a minimum of trauma for both pupil and inadequately trained teacher. The solution lies in a textbook that covers all aspects of the syllabus sufficiently. In addition a model textbook should present the inadequately trained teacher with a clear indication of what teaching material should be presented on a daily basis. A lesson-for-each-period-of-the-year type of textbook will, to my mind, take the sting out of first language teaching for the inadequately trained teacher.

This kind of book may also prove to be invaluable to the scholars. Seeing that it is divided into lessons and seeing that it is pupil orientated, it can allow individual scholars to proceed with their studies despite the enforcement of school or education boycots.

4. IN WHAT RESPECTS DOES THE NEW SYLLABUS DIFFER FROM THE OLD?

The following are the most important differences that will strike a person comparing these syllabi:

4.1 The new syllabus is no longer a general syllabus for African languages. A special committee for each language was appointed by

the J M B. They were commissioned to compile individualised syllabi based on a working document. This committee also divided the subject matter into two parts viz

(a) subject matter suitable for the junior phase;
(b) subject matter suitable for the senior phase.

In the case of Setswana for example, their work culminated in a Draft Core Syllabus for Setswana First Language Higher Grade Stds 5, 6 and 7 as well as 8, 9 and 10. These documents were prepared in 1984.

4.2 The old syllabus does state a number of objectives regarding the major sections of the syllabus like: Grammar, Composition, Stylistics, Literature, Comprehension test, Phonetics and Morphophonology. In addition to similar objectives the new syllabus supplies goals stipulating details of the subject matter in respect of the smallest subsections of the major sections mentioned above. Apart from this the new syllabus also gives guidance to teachers and examiners in respect of the means and nature of evaluation of all the subject matter.

4.3 Some aspects contained in the old syllabus are treated in more detail in the new syllabus. The following example may be quoted. The old syllabus deals with literature in a few paragraphs. In the new syllabus the specifications for literature cover more than 10 pages. In the case of linguistics the old syllabus specifies the subject matter on a single page. The new syllabus needs + 40 pages to do the same.

4.4 The greater amount of detail presented in the syllabus does not necessarily imply that more facts are taught in the new syllabus but rather that a comprehensive list of facts is supplied. This eliminates the possibility of intentional or accidental omissions of some subject matter.

4.5 The new syllabus prescribes new subject matter that was not pre-

viously taught. The following examples can be mentioned:

(a) the scope and contents of phonetics and sound changes is more penetrating;
(b) the inclusion of traditional literature in the new syllabus broadens the scope of literature;
(c) more emphasis is put on the mastering of literary theory as applied to the prescribed books of a particular standard and of a particular year.

CONCLUSION

The new 1987 syllabus is a great step forward for the African languages. One can only hope that teachers and educationists will be able and willing to meet the challenge that is put to them. We at the universities are looking forward in anticipation that we will in the future be enrolling well-trained students displaying insight in the mother tongue because now for the first time do we have a school syllabus that enables pupils to bridge the gap to the university syllabus. However, if the problems of suitable and well-written teaching aids as well as teacher training are not attended to the Education Departments, responsible for the teaching of African languages as first languages, cannot hope to achieve the objectives stated in the preamble to the new syllabus.

We who have devoted the greater part of our lives to the development of the African languages can now look forward to a bright future for these beautiful and rich languages. Our sincere hope is that we will be joined by thousands of teachers and pupils who display a similar love and devotion to these languages that are the means of expression of their most sublime feelings.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

SUMMARY AND REFERENCE HAND-OUT

1. THE MOLTENO PROJECT focusses on the Black Primary School. Some of the theoretical principles which guide its work have relevance in other primary schools and further up the educational ladder. Principles of particular importance:

1.1 Enliteration is best achieved in the mother tongue. A very good foundation can be laid in the first year of school. Thereafter, mother tongue skills and learning attitudes are readily transferable to the second language.

1.2 It is desirable to develop mother tongue language ability together with English, as skills-transfer continues to take place.

1.3 A strong emphasis on the reading skill is necessary, given that reading is the dominant learning mode in education, that English language-weak teachers can be assisted by the printed word, and given the potential the reading-passage has as stimulus and guideline for the development of speaking and writing skills.

1.4 The writing skill, particularly the expository writing skill in the higher standards, requires specialized and considerable attention. Poor standards of writing are a major problem (one of the obvious causes of failure) all the way up to tertiary levels. Early, systematic and progressive instruction systems are required.

1.5 The great potential of language across the curriculum must be exploited.

1.6 Instruction systems must strive for pupil motivation through being cognitive and pupil-centred.

1.7 A very early establishment of satisfactory cognitive states is vital, particularly relating to reading and writing skills. Re-

mediation for poor early schooling becomes progressively more difficult, expensive and unsuccessful. The later the bridging programme, the less likely it is to work.

"The Molteno Project Report" and other documentation relating to the project can be obtained from:

The Director
Institute For The Study Of English In Africa
Rhodes University
P O Box 94
GRAHAMSTOWN
6140

Telephone: (0461) 26093

2. WOODMEAD HIGH SCHOOL: A multi-racial language teaching and learning laboratory.

The last three years spent at this school (with strong and weak English 2nd language pupils mixed almost equally with strong and weak mother tongue pupils) and several years in teacher training, has left me with the following main conclusions about language teaching for standards 6-10:

2.1 Language learning and teaching problems and solutions apply in most cases to both mother tongue and English 2nd language pupils. First and second language distinctions can be false and lead to difficulties, like the erroneous notion that second language pupils can tolerate more drills and require less creative outlet than first language learners. All pupils can get bored.

2.2 Teaching mixed-ability classes is more than virtually all teachers can manage. Language-ability streaming can work extremely well, providing the social aspects are dealt with sensitively. Pupils in the weaker stream can develop very good self images and stronger pupils do not have to become snobs.

2.3 Analyses of Matric language papers; pupil speech, writing, and reading comprehension reveal that poor vocabulary levels constitute a major problem. Successful methods for countering this problem involve

2.3.1 developing the dictionary habit. Pupils need systematic training in both use of a published dictionary and in filling in a personal dictionary. Personal dictionaries must be regularly marked and pupils should make regular oral presentations involving the context a word was found in, its definition and use and its related grammatical forms;

2.3.2 regular writing exercises with Roget's Thesaurus. Pupils who habitually use a dictionary and a thesaurus are strongly advantaged;

2.3.3 at least weekly sessions with an S R A reading laboratory whose "Vocabulary Builder" section is most effective;

2.3.4 a respectful attitude to words in general classroom work which leads to students automatically jotting down new words for later entry into the personal dictionary, and

2.3.5 the encouragement of wider reading - fiction and faction. Learning meanings through contexts is an important factor.

2.4 The quickest and most ruthless revelation of language strength and weakness lies in the précis exercise. Teaching précis skills involves the fundamentals of general comprehension, identifying main points, stretching the vocabulary for synonyms, and combining the new essence in coherent prose; for these reasons the skill is very important. Boredom can be avoided by choosing a good variety of passages including topical ones from the Press, and by often doing the exercise verbally as a group or whole class effort.

2.5 The S R A reading laboratory is very effective in developing read-

ing comprehension, reading speed, reading techniques, and vocabulary. S R A work can remain highly motivating for pupils and a joy for the teacher - provided that over-exposure is avoided and that the brighter students who develop a resistance to the laboratory are allowed to do other guided reading instead.

2.6 The daily newspaper has excellent potential as a class textbook. Its range, variety and topicality do much towards pupil motivation. Ideas for lessons can be found in: The Star's "Teacher's Handbook - How to use the newspaper in the classroom", and the "Eltic Reporter", Vol 6 No 2., June 1981.

2.7 Teaching note-taking skills and making note-taking and file-keeping habitual activities from standard six pays big dividends.

2.8 A vital teaching skill (generally poorly used and not adequately taught) is the effective use of questions. Questions which gently direct attention, which lead out and open up are so important. Related to this is the important skill of responding to "incorrect" or "nearly right" answers. Teacher trainers (through micro-teaching laboratories, if possible) need to tackle this one seriously.

Eltic (The English Language Teaching Information Centre) has made an attempt to develop the questioning skill through literature "Teaching Guides". Covering most matric set-works, these are designed to help teachers find those questions which lead pupils to make important discoveries themselves. "Teaching Guides" can be obtained from:

The Director
Eltic
P O Box 32398
BRAAMFONTEIN
2017

Telephone: 724-9321/2

2.9 The teaching of written composition, particularly expository writing, is probably the area of greatest neglect as well as the greatest promise. By and large students are left to muddle on towards low standards of writing without systematic, progressive instruction. This is disastrous, because educational assessment is based on the writing skill, and because teaching composition teaches thinking. Improving student thinking is arguably at the centre of education.

Though there are other aspects (e.g. teaching discourse markers and logical connectors), teaching the topic sentence and accompanying paragraph-building requires major emphasis. It takes high school students (particularly if they haven't been taught composition in primary school) a very long time to master finding the main idea and to work easily on the general-to-specific scale, and with the abstract-concrete difference.

High school teachers need to work (regularly and systematically) on the topic sentence and related aspects of discourse structuring. Much of this work can be done orally; it is not necessary to overburden the student with writing and the teacher with marking. A lot of time with small units (e.g a topic sentence or a paragraph per day) is advisable.

For a coherent teaching system to develop in an institution, teachers or lecturers need to become familiar with the field.

Strongly Recommended

William J Kerrigan: Teaching To The Point; Six Basic Steps: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich.

Paul Kinsella: The Techniques Of Writing: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich.

Peter Sheal: Advanced Level Writing Skills For Colleges : Longman
And Universities In Africa.

Imhoof & Hudson: From Paragraph To Essay : Longman

For Pupils: Write Well : Sached Trust/Ravan Press

2.10 The teaching of composition in conjunction with teaching literature is an area offering, perhaps, the most promise of all, and is an area little explored. A student who has learned to write analytical essays about literature (expository composition) has reached a very high level of competence and would have little difficulty transferring the skills to formal writing tasks such as letter, memo and report writing. The skills would also be usable in the relatively easier tasks of writing narrative and descriptive compositions. In short, a student writing competent analyses of literature has just about made it.

A literature-composition marriage has many aspects:

2.10.1 Several years of work with discourse structuring are needed; answers to the questions, "What is the writer's main idea here?" and "Who can compose a good topic sentence expressing this idea?" are a very long time in coming.

2.10.2 As suggested in 1 above, developing students' ability to structure argument needs a lot of oral work - both as preparation for immediate writing and as a general exercise without writing follow-up. Students need a great deal of oral classroom practice in the conceptually difficult task of:

separating main point from supporting detail.

expressing the main point in a topic sentence.

using the appropriate discourse markers and connectors for the structuring of cause and effect, classification and listing, comparison and contrast, qualification, prediction and so on.

2.10.3 Verbal structuring of literature analysis in addition to helping students write, does much to sharpen the perception and understanding of literature itself. The methodology used is good for literature study per se because of the rigorous discipline involved.

A literature-composition class is going well when a student composes:

"In Grapes of Wrath Steinbeck uses Jim Casey to proclaim his belief that religion has true value when it is concerned with social morality and not private redemption", and when the class work together orally composing the illustrative paragraph which follows this opening topic sentence.

2.10.4 A lot of short writing tasks ("Write ten topic sentences about this short story"; "Write two topic sentences about this poem and start building their paragraphs") should be given and marked in class. A student needs very much to have regular instant feedback on his efforts at writing.

2.10.5 A lot of short writing tasks should be given for homework and marked very quickly. A successful system works this way:

During the study of a text, students write one paragraph per day. The teacher that night ticks the paragraphs which are acceptable and crosses those which are flawed. Simple marks or comments are made to indicate where the flaws are. Paragraphs are returned with a few verbal comments, and some are read out to illustrate points. All students write the next paragraph and those with crosses have to re-work the crossed paragraph until it is ticked. One to three paragraphs per scene can be set for a play, or per chapter for a novel.

Working this way with small units and quick feedback does not create a heavy marking load, and students soon develop a sense that they are making substantial progress.

2.11 Students are acutely aware that evaluation is almost entirely based on the writing skill, and most are frustrated because they don't know how to improve their writing and they don't believe teachers know either. A progressive, systematic composition-teaching programme leading to substantial measured improvement is a big morale booster for students and does much for motivation at school.

2.12 Students improving their expository writing in the English class soon realise the value of this skill in subjects such as History and Geography. Of course, expository composition teaching in some content subject classes as well would be excellent and put the school on the road to a highly desirable "language in education policy".

METODOLOGIE EN DIE ONDERRIG VAN AFRIKAANS

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1. INLEIDING

Metodologie is so 'n omvattende onderwerp dat daar nie binne die bestek van 'n enkele bespreking aan alle aspekte aandag gegee kan word nie. Voorts voel ek dat metodologie in wese so praktykgerig is (of behoort te wees) dat die teoretiese begronding daarvan alegs as 'n spieel moet dien waarteen 'n mens jou implementering, aanpassings en toepassings moet spieël om die bes moontlike resultaat in jou onderrig te kry. Ek gaan my dus veral toespits op die metodologie wat gevolg word by die onderrig van Afrikaans aan Swart onderwysers tydens indiensopleidingskursusse. Ek wil my verstout om te sê dat dié metodologie met enkele aanpassings net so gebruik kan word by die opleiding van aspirantonderwysers, want dit is wat 'n mens graag in die klaskamers tydens die Afrikaansperiode in die skole toegepas sou wou sien.

Daar sal aandag gegee word aan onder andere die volgende:

- Die agtergrond waarteen die kursusse hulle afspeel
- Enkele belangrike probleme by die onderrig van Afrikaans
- Metodologiese aanpak in den brede
- Voorbeelde van spesifieke metodes
- Gevolgtrekkings en moontlike aanbevelings

Die bespreking gaan baie prakties van aard wees en die doelwitte van die stuk is kortliks die volgende:

(i) Dit dien as 'n voorlopige aanknopingspunt om u gedagtes oor metodologie te prikkel en is dus geen finale stuk waarin die laaste woord oor metodologie gesê is nie.

(ii) Dit dien as 'n rigtingwyser vir die gesprek wat moet plaasvind nadat enkele belangrike sake in verband met metodologie kortliks uitgelig is.

(iii) Die stuk moet gesien word as hebbende 'n oop slot aangesien daar ná die bespreking en die kongres sinvolle wysigings

aangebring sal word in die lig van gedagtes van ander vakkenners, en 'n geheelbeeld van alle besprekings gevorm kan word.

2. AGTERGROND

Wanneer daar gepraat word van metodologie in Afrikaanstaalonderrig staan dit nie los van 'n ondersoek wat in 1979 en 1980 deur die Eenheid vir die Onderrig van Afrikaans aan die RAU in opdrag van die RGN van stapel gestuur is nie. Dié ondersoek het gehandel oor die onderrig van Afrikaans aan Swart teikengroepe binne formele onderwysverband. Die doel was hoofsaaklik om doeltreffende tegnieke sowel as leemtes te identifiseer, behoeftes te bepaal en moontlik aanbevelings te doen ten opsigte van onderwysopleiding, skole, indiensopleiding, volwasse onderwys, ensovoorts. Om hierdie rede dus is besoeke afgelê by talle skole, onderwysopleidingsentra, indiensopleidingsentra, Departement Onderwys en Opleiding en Onderwysdepartemente in die Republiek en die Swart state.

'n Finale verslag is toe in Desember 1980 uitgebring waarin die bevindinge opgesom is. Voortvloeiend hieruit is die volgende projek aan die EOA toegeken: "Navorsing oor en eksperimentering met verskillende metodes van Taalonderrig, om binne sowel as buite die formele onderwysstelsel Afrikaans effektief oorgedra te kry aan Swartmense" (EOA 1981:2). In 1981 het die EOA as deel van 'n RGN-navorsingsprojek met 'n Indiensopleidingsprogram vir Swart Afrikaansonderwysers in Soweto begin. Houe samewerking by die implementering van die program is ook verkry van die Johannesburgstreek se Departement Onderwys en Opleiding. Selfs nadat die projek in 1983 afgehandel is, is voortgegaan met die indiensopleiding en in 1984 en 1985 is sowel die onderwysers van die Hoëveldstreek van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding as KwaNdebele betrek. Die doel van die Indiensopleidingsprogram is tweërlei:

(i) die opgradering van die kommunikatiewe vaardigheid van die onderwysers self asook hul kognitiewe insigte in die doeltaal en

(ii) blootstelling aan nuwe en beter metodologiese benaderings.

Tydens die program is ook baie aandag aan die produksie van ondersteunende materiaal vir kursusgangers gegee. Dit het onder andere die vorm aangeneem van opsommings, verskillende soorte vrae en tegnieke by die letterkundekomponent, en grammatika-aantekeninge en -oefeninge, tegnieke, prente en kassette by die taalkundekomponent.

In hierdie tyd is op 'n ad hoc-basis met nuwe metodologiese benaderings en tegnieke geëksperimenteer wat tot waardevolle insigte gelei het. So is daar uit die groot aantal toepaslike onderrigtegnieke 'n aantal proefondervindelik uitgetoets en aangepas by die behoeftes van die teikengroep in die lig van die praktiese ervaring. Hier word gedink aan die liedjietegniek, die tableau vivant, laat waai, kaartspeletjies, ensovoorts. Die doel van hierdie proefloop was om uit te kom by 'n aantal geselekteerde onderrigtegnieke, op taalkunde- sowel as letterkundevlak, waarvan 'n paar uiteindelik empiries geëvalueer sou word met betrekking tot hul effektiwiteit. Die uiteindelike doel van die RGN-navorsingsprojek was dus om met behulp van die empiriese gegewens van 'n reeks ondersoeke aan te toon watter tegnieke tot meer doeltreffende onderrig in Afrikaans aan Swart teikengroepe bydra met die oog op moontlike implementering daarvan deur die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding. Die finale verslag is in Oktober 1985 vrygestel.

Dit is dan teen hierdie agtergrond waarteen die bespreking oor metodologie gesien moet word, en insigte is proefondervindelik oor 'n lang tydperk verkry.

3. ENKELE PROBLEME BY DIE ONDERRIG VAN AFRIKAANS

Voordat spesifieke probleme wat saamhang met die onderrig van Afrikaans uitgelig kan word, moet sekere algemene knelpunte in die Onderwys eers genoem word. Die hele problematiek ten opsigte van die opleiding van taalonderwysers en metodologie kan slegs beoordeel word teen die breër raamwerk van die behoeftes vir die land as geheel.

(i) Vanweë die steeds groeiende bevolking neem die behoeftes aan Onderwys toe soos duidelik blyk uit 'n projek van toekomstige behoeftes aan onderwysers:

	1980	2000
Blanke onderwys	48 722	41 774
Kleurlingonderwys	25 359	32 376
Indiëronderwys	8 079	9 994
Swart onderwys (Onafhanklike Swart state uitgesluit)	95 301	185 523

Dit bring mee "dat daar elke jaar een of twee opleidingskolleges gebou sal word om met groei tred te hou" (RGN 1981: par. 5,4,1.7).

(ii) Vanweë die ontwikkeling op alle terreine van die lewe, word steeds hoër eise aan almal gestel wat ook die Onderwys beïnvloed.

(iii) Die relatief lae opleidingspeil en akademiese agtergrond by talle onderwysers speel 'n rol. So het maar volgens die RGN-verslag 62 % van alle Swart onderwysers st. 8 plus 'n onderwysdiploma, 19 % st. 10 plus 'n onderwysdiploma en 1 % 'n graad.

(iv) Die taalvaardigheid van die onderwysers in die doeltaal laat dikwels veel te wense oor. "In die geval van Swart onderwys word beide Afrikaans en Engels feitlik uitsluitlik deur nie-moedertaalsprekers onderrig. Voeg hierby die reeds genoemde feit dat slegs enkele van hierdie onderwysers dit self verder as st. 8 in die doeltaal gebring het, en ook selde die geleentheid kry om die taal in 'n Engelse of Afrikaanse omgewing te gebruik, en die erns van die situasie blyk duidelik" (Kroes 1982:41).

(v) Die leerlingtal per onderwyser bring 'n swaar las en verantwoordelikheid vir die onderwyser mee. Die onderwyser-leerling verhouding is tans 1:48.

(vi) Die swaar nasienlas van taalonderwysers het 'n nadelige uitwerking op verdere studie. Dit is ook nie onmoontlik dat intelligente leerlinge dit opmerk en afgeskrik word vir die onderrig van tale nie.

(vii) In die meeste skole is daar 'n agterstand wat fasiliteite en media betref. Gesien in die lig daarvan dat + 93 % van die begroting aan onderwyssalarisse bestee word, bly daar nie veel geld oor om dié agterstand gou in te haal nie. Dit het 'n groot uitwerking op metodologie.

(viii) Indiensopleidingsentra is minimaal van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding. Daar is slegs die een by Mabopane buite Pretoria.

Nog meer knelpunte en syfers kan genoem word, maar ek dink dit gee 'n idee van die probleme waarmee Onderwys as sodanig te kampe het. Ongelukkig kan dit nie met 'n towerformule verander word nie. Daarom help dit nie om oor die probleme te teoretiseer nie, maar moet vinnig en daadwerklik by 'n praktiese werkwyse uitgekom word wat voorsien in die geïdentifiseerde leemtes en behoeftes en rekening hou met die sillabus en daarin slaag om ten minste sommige van die probleme uit te skakel.

Uit die verslag van die EOA (1981), eksploratiewe gesprekke met lede van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding asook persoonlike ervaring en gesprekke met onderwysers tydens die Indiensopleidingsprogram in Soweto en Broederstroom blyk enkele spesifieke kwelpunte in verband met taal- en letterkunde-onderrig in die Swart skole baie duidelik:

(i) Dit wil voorkom of onderwysers en ook aspirantonderwysers dit nie maklik vind om hul eie tegnieke uit te werk en aan

te pas by die behoeftes van die oomblik in die klassituasie nie.

(ii) Onderwysers is bereid om nuwe tegnieke toe te pas, maar die neiging is dan om volgens 'n voorgeskrewe en sistematiese plan of "resep" klas te gee sonder om te voldoen aan die eise van die oomblik.

(iii) Daar is steeds 'n groot voorliefde vir formele onderrig en terminologie. Die rede hiervoor is dat die onderwyser se gebruiksvaardigheid in die teikentaal dikwels swak is, en hy dus veiliger voel in die onderrigsituasie as hy die ou formele grammatikabenadering handhaaf. Dit beteken nie dat die kognitiewe benadering in tweede- en vreemdetaalonderrig verwerp word nie, maar dit gaan om die oorbeklemtoning van 'n oud-tradisionele grammatikabenadering met oorbeklemtoning van terminologie, aangevul deur meganiese drilwerk en herhaling, (wat) nie die beste metode (is) om leerlinge in groot klasse maksimum voordeel uit taalonderrig te laat put nie" (EOA 1981:14).

(iv) Onderwysers se Afrikaansvaardigheid is dikwels nie op standaard nie en gevolglik word foutiewe Afrikaans aan die leerlinge oorgedra sonder dat die leerkrag dit agterkom.

(v) Afrikaans word in die meeste gevalle deur leerders as 'n vreemde taal en nie 'n tweede taal nie, aangeleer.

(vi) Onderwysers vind dit soms moeilik om vrae so op te stel dat die leerlinge presies weet wat van hulle verwag word, derhalwe lewer die vraag-en-antwoordtegniek probleme op; trouens die onderwysers moedig die leerlinge nie aan om self vrae te vra nie.

(vii) Baie herhalinge en meganiese drilwerk dra ook nie by tot geïnspireerde aanbiedings en geïnteresseerde deelname deur die leerlinge nie.

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(viii) Lang en moeilike woorde word dikwels in verduidelikings gebruik, selfs al is hulle minder geskik as korter eenvoudiger woorde.

(ix) By die taalkunde word voorts dikwels baie ingewikkelde strukture of lae frekwente woorde in toetse gevra.

(x) Wat die letterkunde-onderrig betref, het dit by die Indiensopleidingsprogram duidelik geblyk dat die onderwysers self die voorgeskrewe boeke dikwels glad nie lees nie (hulle steun slegs op die aantekeninge) of nie vooruit lees nie, met die gevolg dat hulle verwysingsraamwerk baie beperk is en hulle nie 'n oorsig oor die werk as geheel het nie. Dit het weer 'n invloed op hulle onderrig.

(xi) Voorgeskrewe werke word soms bloot gelees sonder enige verduideliking aan die leerlinge oor die inhoud. Gevolglik verstaan die leerlinge die storie eenvoudig nie.

(xii) Voorgeskrewe werke word menigmaal nie eens klaar deurgelees en voltooi nie alhoewel die eksamen oor die hele werk handel. Dit is 'n saak wat duidelik deur die eksaminatore waargeneem kon word, en is in gesprekke met lede van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding aan die EOA oorgedra.

(xiii) Indien 'n voorgeskrewe werk in die klas gelees word, vorder dit baie stadig vanweë "die amper obsessionele hardnekkigheid (oor) die betekenis van elke woord" (EOA 1981:26). Hierdie "obsessie" is ook tydens die Indiensopleidingsprogram by die onderwysers opgemerk. Onderwysers, op hulle beurt, gee self dikwels die betekenisse van alle potensieel moeilike woorde. Die feit dat 'n mens nie elke woord hoef te verstaan om die algemene strekking te volg nie asook dat die baie onderbrekings dit byna onmoontlik maak om die draad van die storie te volg, word dikwels heeltemal uit die oog verloor deur die onderwysers.

(xiv) Dit is baie moeilik om die presiese doelwitte van letterkunde-onderrig in die Swart sekondêre skole te bepaal. Die enigste wat genoem word ten opsigte hiervan is: "Om by die leerling 'n belangstelling in en liefde vir die Afrikaanse boek te kweek, sodat hy uit eie beweging Afrikaans sal lees" (Dept. Onderwys en Opleiding 1981:1). Die vaardigheid, uitgebreidheid en idealisme ten opsigte van letterkunde-onderrig blyk duidelik uit dié aanhaling. Uit gesprekke met lede van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding het dit aan die lig gekom dat dit bloot om die inhoud van die boek, dit wil sê die storie self, gaan. Vrae sal dus net inhoudsgerig moet wees en geen besondere insigte word verlang nie. Die onderrigtegnieke moet tydens die program hierop afgestem wees.

(xv) Wanneer langer vrae uitgewerk moet word sonder dat 'n raamwerk gegee word, vind leerlinge én onderwysers dit moeilik om self te selekteer wat belangrik is al dan nie. Derhalwe is tydens die program gepoog om hoofmomente hoofstukgewys aan te toon. Onderwysers het dit later self gedoen en dan is dit gekontroleer.

(xvi) Vrae word nie op die man af beantwoord nie. Kontekstuele vrae lewer minder probleme op mits die aangehaalde gedeelte goed begryp is.

(xvii) Vrae word dikwels oor onbelangrike gedeeltes gevra asook irrelevante vrae, byvoorbeeld Watter kleur hemp het hy tydens die ongeluk aangehad?

(xviii) Die leerlinge en ook die onderwysers kan moeilik tussen baie karakters in 'n boek onderskei.

'n Moontlike verklaring vir heelwat van bogenoemde probleme wat soms ook by meer ervare onderwysers aangetref word, is die volgende: "Dit kan direk voortspruit uit gebrek aan selfvertroue

weens die studente se swak beheer oor die teikentaal en dikwels lae akademiese peil enersyds, en 'n konserwatisme wat saamhang met 'n vertroue in ou gebruike en 'n neiging om nie te wil wegbeweeg van die aanvaarde standpunt dat die onderwyser as outoritietsfiguur nooit die inisiatief uit sy eie hande mag laat glip nie, andersyds" (EOA 1981:16) Desnieteenstaande is die feit van die saak dat bogenoemde probleme die volgende dempende invloede het:

- Baie van die tegnieke kan nie tot insigte lei omdat dit nie heuristies aangepak word nie.

- Daar word nie vir individualisering voorsiening gemaak nie.

- Geen terugvoer word van die leerlinge gekry nie - m.a.w. baie keer is dit 'n eenrigtingverkeer waarin die onderwyser al die praatwerk doen.

- Min of geen inisiatief en deelname van die leerlinge se kant word aangemoedig nie.

- Van toepassing in 'n lewendige kommunikasiesituasie is daar geen sprake nie, m.a.w. daar is niks wat kan lei tot 'n beter kommunikatiewe vaardigheid in die teikentaal nie.

Bogenoemde knelpunte en die daarmee gepaardgaande swak uitslae vorm die raamwerk waarbinne die daadwerklike poging in die Indiensopleidingsprogram ten opsigte van die verbetering van die onderrig van Afrikaans gesien moet word.

4. METODOLOGIESE AANPAK

Al die knelpunte oefen uiteraard 'n groot invloed uit op metodologie, maar die spesifieke knelpunte wil die volgende sentrale gedagtes toelig:

- Die spesifieke behoeftes noop 'n spesifiek eiesoortige en moderne metodologie.

- Die huidige metodologie hou nie rekening met die behoefte van kommunikasie wat die leerlinge ná skool sal nodig kry nie.
- Doelwitte kan beter bereik word as dit rekening hou met die teikengroep, agterstande, spesifieke probleme en doelwitte van die sillabus - metodologiese doelwitte moet dus hierop gerig wees met as langtermyndoelwit kommunikatiewe vaardigheid.
- Die onderwysers moet sien dat die metodologie tot beter eksamenresultate lei, anders sal hulle nie hul eie metodiek aanpas nie, want in die skole is die verkryging van 'n sertifikaat vir leerlinge sowel as onderwyser baie belangrik.
- Die metodologie moet dus aan die behoeftes van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding, die onderwysers én die leerlinge voldoen.

Om Afrikaans as vreemde taal te onderrig, is natuurlik per se geen maklike taak nie. Afgesien van die gewone vreemdetaalprobleme speel politieke en houdingsfaktore ook 'n belangrike rol. Al hierdie faktore behoort in aanmerking geneem te word en derhalwe behoort dit 'n uitdaging te wees om die metodologie so aan te pak dat dit doeltreffend is en die gewenste resultate oplewer.

Sekere basiese uitgangspunte lê die spesifieke metodologiese aanpak ten grondslag:

(i) Daar moet probeer word om 'n "Afrikaanse" atmosfeer in die klas te skep. Dit kan gebeur deur net Afrikaans te praat, Afrikaans te sing, hulle na liedjies of voorlesings in Afrikaans te laat luister, dikwels met informeel met hulle te gesels oor enige onderwerp waaroor hulle wil praat, met hulle te gesels oor Afrikaanse boeke of selfs die Afrikaanssprekende se eetgewoontes te illustreer! Aangesien 'n taal inderdaad net geleer word deur dit werklik te gebruik, word die hoofdoelwit dan verduidelik, nl. dat dit gaan om kommunikasie, om jouself verstaanbaar te maak en dat foute geleidelik sal verdwyn soos jy meer oefening kry.

(ii) Hulle word op grootskaal aan die moedertaalsprekers blootgestel.

(iii) Dis die onderwysers wat 'n behoefte het om oefening; derhalwe moet hulle baie praat, lees en skryf. Dit gaan dus daarom dat hulle die taal gebruik.

(iv) Alhoewel die indiensopleidingskursusse baie intensief is, word gepoog om 'n aangename atmosfeer daar te stel.

(v) Daar moet in die basiese behoeftes van die onderwysers ten opsigte van die taalkunde en letterkunde voorsien word: In die eerste plek is die aanbiedings so prakties as moontlik sodat die onderwysers dit net so kan gaan toepas. Tweedens leer die onderwysers deur die lesmateriaal wat hulle ontvang, wat met hulle deurgewerk word en wat hulle help vervaardig die onderskeie taalkundekomponente en voorgeskrewe werke ken. Derdens is die onderrigtegnieke daarop gemik om spesifieke knelpunte, soos die onvermoë om goeie toetsvrae op te stel asook die onbegrip oor die voorgeskrewe werke se inhoud, te probeer verlig en uit te skakel.

(vi) Daar moet nooit uit die oog verloor word dat die onderwysers die leerlinge die einde van die jaar deur 'n skriftelike eksamen moet kry nie, derhalwe word baie aandag aan die behandeling van grammatikale strukture en die inhoud van die voorgeskrewe werke gegee.

(vii) Die sillabus word deurentyd geraadpleeg sodat die metodologiese aanpak nie verwyderd raak van die werklikheid waarmee die onderwyser deur die Departement en die klas en in die eksamen gekonfronteer word nie.

(viii) Daar word sterk gesteun op bevindinge van die navorsingsverslag ten opsigte van metodologie wat implementeringsmoontlikhede het bv. die Swartmense het 'n aangebore gevoel

vir ritme en melodie en sing graag en ook hou hulle van handeling en dramatisering. Die liedjietegniek en gedramatiseerde metodes hou dus groot potensiaal in vir die onderrig van taal aan Swartmense.

Samevattend sou 'n mens kon sê dat die eiesoortige probleme en behoeftes betreffende die onderrig van Afrikaans asook die veranderde sillabus en insigte uit die Psigolinguistiek die metodiek beïnvloed. Die klemverskuiwing na 'n kommunikatiewe benadering en die nosioneel-funksionele sillabus stel ook nuwe eise aan die metodologie.

5. METODOLOGIESE TOEPASSING

Vervolgens word eksemplaries gekyk na metodes waar voorafgaande probleme in gedagte gehou word en met groot vrug gebruik word.

Die doel is nie om volledig by die metodes stil te staan nie. Ek gaan baie prakties wees en my beperk tot enkele doelwitte wat bereik kon word, enkele voordele wat dit inhou en enkele gebruiksmoontlikhede daarvan dit wil sê die integrering daarvan binne die totale onderrigprogram om aan die eise van die sillabus te voldoen.

By al die komponente is daar basies drie hoofdoelwitte:

- Opgradering van die kommunikatiewe vaardigheid en kognitiewe insigte van die onderwysers in die doeltaal.
- Blootstelling aan nuwe en beter metodologiese benaderings, gebaseer op navorsing, wat rekening hou met die spesifieke probleme en behoeftes van die gemeenskap.
  Die produksie van ondersteunende materiaal (byvoorbeeld op kasset) wat die onderwysers sal help om die verworwe vaardighede en nuwe tegnieke in die klaskamersituasie toe te pas (EQA:1985:16).

5.1 TAALKUNDE

5.1.1 Liedjietegniek

Ouditiewe stimuli is noodsaaklik om tweede- en vreemdetaalsprekers se reseptiewe vaardighede te verbeter. Krashen (1983) sê in hierdie verband dat deur die leerder met 'n magdom gesproke materiaal te omring, dit die kortste pad na luistervaardigheid is. Al lei dit nie noodwendig tot die oefening van die produktiewe vaardigheid nie, is die blote blootstelling aan die moedertaalspreker van die uiterste belang, omdat die leerders gewoonlik slegs aan die redelik onnatuurlike klaskamertaal ("classroom discourse") blootgestel word. Rivers (1976) maak ook so 'n tipe onderskeid. Vir haar is dit wat in die klaskamer onderrig word die "normale" taal, dit wil sê die taalpatrone wat ooreenkom (aanpas) by elkedagse gebruik. Die natuurlike taal, hierteenoor, kan baie idiosinkrasies wees, dit is 'n baie meer persoonlike en subjektiewe gebruik van taal, en word volgens haar beter buite die klas aangeleer. Deur kassetgebruik kan egter natuurlikerwys ook in die klas daarmee kennis gemaak word, en dit is hier waar die liedjietegniek 'n groot rol speel.

Die inskakeling van liedjies as onderrigtegniek by tweede- en vreemdetaalonderrig is nie werklik iets nuuts nie; maar om die gewone Afrikaanse volksliedjieskat te ontgin opsoek na geskikte liedjies word nog nie so baie gedoen nie. Die liedjietegniek word natuurlik nie per se gebruik nie, maar is 'n hulpmiddel vir onder andere die volgende:

- die inoefening van spesifieke grammatikastrukture;
- die opskerp van die studente se luistervermoë;
- die verbetering van uitspraak en blootstelling aan 'n moedertaalspreker.
- die uitbrei van woordeskat;
- die skep van 'n aangename atmosfeer, ens.

Neem as voorbeeld 'n eenvoudige liedjie soos Ek soek na my Dina om

die gebruik van die besitlike voornaamwoord in die skerp. Die liedjie is kort en word gou gememoriseer deur dit 'n paar keer te sing. Dan word 'n student na vore geroep en gevra wat sy geliefde se naam is, en dan word gesing Hy soek na sy Martha. Dieselfde word met 'n dame gedoen en daar word gevind dat die korrekte vorm van die besitlike naamwoord hy of sy nooit weer vergeet word nie! Hierna volg dan 'n meer formele aanbieding van die besitlike voornaamwoord asook oefeninge. Die ondervinding het geleer dat daar geen gebrek aan entoesiasme is nie, en die mense sing spontaan uit volle bors en harmoniseer die liedjies!

Daar is natuurlik baie variasies van en toepassings op die liedjietegniek, maar ek wil net nog na een verwys. Die woorde van Ver in die ou Kalahari word gevolg terwyl daarna geluister word en dan word dit saamgesing. Dis 'n langerige liedjie waarvan die woorde nie maklik gememoriseer kan word nie. Vervolgens word nog 'n vel uitgedeel met sekere woorde (ou, wyd, eind'loos, rooi) uitgelaat. Hulle moet nou luister en die ontbrekende woorde invul. Dan word daar aan die onderwysers gevra wat hulle dink met die lied onderrig kan word. As hulle nie weet nie, word hulle met gerigte vrae gelei totdat hulle weet dis die bevoeglike naamwoord. Eers word die byvoeglike naamwoorde in die liedjie attributief en predikatief behandel en dan word oorgegaan na 'n meer formele behandeling daarvan. Dit is 'n poging om onderwysers te leer om self te sien watter moontlikhede 'n liedjie bied*. Allerlei ander opdragte kan later oor die liedjie gegee word; bv. skryf dit oor in die verlede tyd, in die lydende vorm in die ontkenning, in jou eie woorde, gee die teenoorgestelde van sekere woorde, ensovoorts.

Tydens so 'n aanbieding word daar presies gedemonstreer hoe die onderwyser die tegniek moet hanteer. Klem word daarop gelê dat ten spyte van die lighartigheid van die les, werklike leer plaasvind. 'n Kasset met al die liedjies wat tydens 'n kursus gebruik word, word ook aan elke onderwyser gegee om die inskakeling van die liedjietegniek te vergemaklik.

* Al die tegnieke kan per se vir Swart teikengroepe gebruik word, die klem op die hantering van die metode sal net verval.

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Die metode hou die volgende voordele in:

- Benewens 'n informele, gesellige en ontspanne klasatmosfeer wat geskep word, kan 'n oulike liedjie die klas positief motiveer ten opsigte van die teikentaal en antipatie teëwerk.
- Sekere strukture kan deur middel van liedjies ingeskerp en vasgelê word. Taal word geïntegreer aangebied, in konteks.
- Liedjies voorkom verveling.
- Dit bring die konteks buite om die taal in die klas in en gee leerders 'n idee van die kultuur waaruit die taal kom (Byvoorbeeld Afrikaners is plesierig of Boerekos.)

5.1.2 Prentjietegniek

In die onderrigsituasie deur die eeue heen het die visuele stimulus nog altyd 'n belangrike rol gespeel. Bennett (1974: 72-73) sê dan ook tereg dat as na taalonderrig gekyk word en geen aandag aan die oog as inligtingsbron gegee word nie, dit uiters agterdogtig sou lyk: "The eyes are a more capacitous channel than the ears, and it would be unlikely that a learner would not endeavour to gain access to information which would be suitable for intake by the eyes." Visuele stimuli het meestal 'n produktiewe reaksie tot gevolg, met ander woorde dit laat die leerder praat of skryf en op die manier gebruik hy die taal.

In die navorsingsprojek van die EOA is gevind dat die skryfbord in die meeste gevalle as enigste hulpmiddel gebruik word. Die doelwitte by die gebruik van prente is om te toon:

- hoe prente in 'n klasaanbieding verlewendig: dit trek die aandag en beïnvloed die houding positief;
- hoe maklik en goedkoop dit bekombaar is;
- hoe dit die aanleer van nuwe strukture vergemaklik en woordeskat uitbrei;
- hoe doeltreffend die leerstof aangebied word: die konkrete voorstelling vergemaklik ook die leerproses;

- hoe prente vir 'n hele aantal onderrigsituasies en alle vlakke van taalonderrig gebruik kan word (plooibaar).

'n Groot prent word aan die klas getoon waarop dan sekere vrae aan hulle gestel word, bv. Is daar 'n motor? Is daar êrens 'n emmer? ens. Die antwoorde van die klas is outomaties in die negatief en op dié manier word die ontkenning geoefen. Om die onderwysers die selfvertroue te gee om dié tegniek toe te pas, word aan hulle gesê en gewys dat hulle vooraf hul vrae (en selfs die antwoorde) agter op die prent moet skryf. Dit voorkom dat hulle senuweeagtig word en nie weet watter vrae om te vra nie: hulle is dus volkome in beheer van die situasie en lees as't ware net die vrae af. Hulle word ook ingelig aangaande die keuse van prente.

Aangesien nabootsing en herhaling belangrike tegnieke is (mits dit reg hanteer word dit wil sê individuele leerlinge gekontroleer word) en deur alle onderwysers gebruik word, kan prente tot 'n mate hiervoor gebruik en wel in die vorm van 'n beheerde dialoog aan die klas geleer word. Dit is van die grootste belang dat die dialoog een of ander struktuur wat baasgeraak moet word, sal bevat anders is die didaktiese waarde daarvan soveel minder. Weer eens is die onderwyser volkome in beheer en op sy gemak deurdat die woorde agterop is.

Strokiesprente met die direkte woorde van die spotprentkarakters word ook gebruik. Die strokiesprent word deurgelees en die klas moet op 'n natuurlike wyse die direkte woorde by elke prentjie aan iemand oorvertel en dan skryf. Eers daarna word die reëls van die Direkte en Indirekte Rede deurgegaan. Dit is 'n poging om aan te toon dat dié komponent (wat in elke vraestel voorkom) nie regtig so 'n monster is as wat gewoonlik gemeen word nie omdat die oorvertel van iemand se woorde eintlik iets is wat almal daagliks menigmaal doen. Hierdie tegniek word ook baie geniet.

In albei gevalle word 'n eksemplaar van die prente, 'n groot geïllustreerde prent sowel as 'n afdruk van die strokiesprent, aan die onderwysers gegee vir onmiddellike implementering in die klas.

Die grootste waarde van hierdie metode lê m.i. daarin dat prente voorwerpe op dieselfde wyse as woorde (-groepe) verteenwoordig en dus 'n skakel vorm met die taalitems. Bennett (1974:72) sê dan ook:" ..... (they) act as mediators for the sentences, between reality or 'the content of situation' and the language." Verder ook kan dit die onderwyser aanmoedig om met meer vertroue nog 'n hulpmiddel in te skakel. Die prentjietegniek kan ook met transparante gedoen word; vanweë die swak fasiliteite in skole word dit nie beklemtoon nie.

5.1.3 Kaartspeltegniek

Die belangrikste doelwit is om te wys hoe onderwysers self soortgelyke speletjies kan ontwerp of aanpas om leerders se behoeftes te bevredig. Dit word ook beklemtoon dat die leerder moet wesentlik leer, en die spelreëls nie ingewikkeld moet wees nie - taalinhoud wel.

Die volgende voordele speel 'n rol:

- Dit verseker onbewuste leer en leerlingdeelname.
- Dis 'n informele manier om die leerder se kommunikatiewe vaardigheid te verbeter.
- Dit skep 'n aangename klas- en leeratmosfeer.
- Dit dwing samewerking onder leerders af vanweë die element van kompetisie - motivering baat hierby.
- Dit genereer 'n onvoorspelbare omvang van taal en funksies alhoewel onderwysers sekere semantiese velde kan voorspel.
- Dit beïnvloed leerders se houding teenoor die taal en klasaktiwiteite positief.

Een van die kaartspeletjies is dat die klas in pare verdeel word en elke paar 14 kaartjies kry; 7 het selfstandige naamwoorde op en die ander 7 verkleininguitgange. Dit moet 'n verskeidenheid dek en die verskillende soorte uitgange bevat. Die leerders moet dit so vinnig as moontlik by mekaar pas. Vir elke korrekte paar word 2

punte toegeken. Die aanbieder loop rond en soet dit kontroleer. Die paar wat eerste klaar is en wie se kaartjies korrek gepas is, is die wenners. Die kaartjies word gesirkuleer en die spel word weer gespeel. Hierna kom 'n formele verduideliking van die verkleinwoord aan die beurt. Die idee is dat daar van die deduktiewe na die induktiewe beweeg word. Daar word ook geïllustreer hoe ander grammatiekakomponente op dieselfde manier aangebied kan word.

'n Nadeel is dat die leerders redelik passief is en nie baie praat nie. Tog, aan die ander kant skakel dit die bloot meganiese leer van lang lyste tot 'n mate uit.

Daar is natuurlik baie variasies op kaartspeletjies en om 'n speletjie meer aktief te maak, moet 'n leerder bv. vir 'n ander vra: Het jy vir my die teenoorgestelde van "hartseer"? Albei word dus gedwing om te dink, want die ander een moet antwoord: Ja, ek het dit - dis "gelukkig". 'n Leerder kan ook 'n taalstraf kry as hy 'n fout tydens die spel begaan bv. Maak 'n sin om die verskil tussen ken en weet te illustreer.

Ook die metode word met entoesiasme ontvang en voorts dra dit daartoe by dat die onderwysers nog 'n hulpmiddel doeltreffend gebruik, gedwing word om sy eie gebruiksvaardigheid en kognitiewe kennis van die taal te verbeter.

5.1.4 Blokkiesraaisels

Dit is een van die tegnieke wat die onderwysers uiters stimulerend vind en wat deur die element van kompetisie versterk word aangesien 'n prys altyd uitgeloof word. Die doelwitte is onder andere:

- Die studente leer om vinnig en individueel te dink.
- Hulle leer om leidrade te interpreteer.
- Hulle leer om te onderskei tussen twee moontlike korrekte antwoorde - vanweë die aantal blokkies.
- Hul woordeskat brei uit.
- Hulle gaan met die taal as sodanig om.
- Dis 'n afwisseling van die gewone hersieningsles.

Daar word nie aanbeveel dat die gewone blokkiesraaisels wat in dagblaaie en tydskrifte verskyn, geneem word nie aangesien dit by hulle bloot gaan om woordeskatuitbreiding en baie dikwels woorde met 'n lae frekwensie gebruik word. Die blokkiesraaisel wat by Indiensopleiding gebruik word, word self deur die aanbieders opgestel en 'n sekere taalkomponent bv. die byvoeglike naamwoord of selfstandige naamwoord in sy geheel, vorm altyd die basis van die blokkiesraaisel.

By die aanbieding word verseker dat die studente presies weet hoe om 'n blokkiesraaisel in te vul aangesien baie dit vir die eerste keer doen. 'n Sekere tyd word aan hulle gegee om dit te voltooi waarna die antwoorde verskaf word en die prys uitgedeel word.

Daar is gevind dat die onderwysers dit moeilik vind om <u>self</u> 'n blokkiesraaisel te ontwerp en vrae op te stel. In die aanvanklike eksperimentering het baie tyd verlore gegaan met die opstel van so 'n blokkiesraaisel. Daar is toe besluit dat hulle liewer net vir die oefening 'n blokkiesraaisel sou voltooi om hul eie kognitiewe vaardigheid te verbeter, en die klaar opgestelde blokkiesraaisel kan ook in die klas gebruik word. Daar word probeer om die blokkiesraaisel só op te stel dat dit gebruik kan word vir die spesifieke standerds vir wie die onderwysers onderrig. Dus: selfs al stel die onderwysers nie self blokkiesraaisels op nie, is die invul daarvan 'n wonderlike blootstelling aan die taikentaal en word gewoonlik met entoesiasme begroet. Selfs al sou die onderwyser dit nie in die klas gebruik nie, kan die didaktiese waarde wat dit vir homself het nie na waarde geskat word nie.

5.2 LETTERKUNDE

5.2.1 <u>Tableau vivant</u>

Die <u>tableau vivant</u> is 'n vorm van gedramatiseerde metode. Drama as tegniek vind groot aanklank by die Swart mense vanweë hulle spontane voorliefde vir aksie. Die begrip <u>tableau vivant</u> word deur

Shipley (1972: 412) soos volg gedefineer: "Representation of an individual incident or scene (usually historical) by a silent and motionless person or group, as on a float or in a series of such tableaux vivants in vaudeville or at the circus". Met die tableau vivant, binne die letterkunde-onderrigsituasie, kan die volgende doelwitte bereik word:

- Belangrike tekstgedeeltes waaroor lang en kontekstuele vrae gevra kan word, word beklemtoon.
- 'n Intensiewe en noukeurige leesvermoë word ingeskerp, want die leerlinge moet die teks deeglik ken om 'n belangrike moment te kan kies en uit te beeld sonder om iets uit te laat.
- Deur selfdeelname leer die leerlinge die teks beter ken.
- Logiese denke en handeling word gestimuleer.
- Deur middel van die vrae ná die tableau moet die leerlinge hulself kan verantwoord.
- Daar is 'n element van genot en uitdaging ingebou.
- Die fokus is op die teks en nié op die grammatika of woordeskat nie.

Alhoewel die tableau vivant individueel of in groepe aangepak kan word, vind leerders dit makliker om as groep op te tree. Dit is van die uiterste belang dat die belangrikste momente uitgebeeld moet word en dat die onderwyser vooraf die tegniek deeglik aan die klas verduidelik.

Die letterkunde-aanbieder kan soos volg te werk gaan: Verdeel die klas in groepies van 3 of 4 leerlinge. Elke groepie besluit dan self na aanleiding van die hoofstuk of gedeelte wat hersien moet word, watter moment hulle as belangrik beskou en wil uitbeeld. (In die begin, wanneer hierdie tegniek nog vir die leerlinge onbekend is, is dit wenslik dat die onderwyser self die belangrikste momente uitsoek, en een moment aan elke groep gee.)

Die groepies besluit nou hóé hulle die moment gaan uitbeeld. Dit kan vinnig in die klas geoefen word, maar vir kontroledoeleindes, en as gevolg van die leerlingtal, is dit beter dat dit ná skool gedoen word as voorbereiding vir die volgende dag se les.

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Die eerste groepie kom dan aan die beurt. Die aanbieder tel stadig tot by 10 terwyl die leerders in posisie kom. Op 10 slaan hy 'n ghong en alle beweging en handeling stol, en daar is stilte. As die aanbieder weer op die ghong slaan, is die tableau verby. Die leerders wat die tableau gedoen het, bly voor die klas staan en word tot verantwoording geroep deur die res van die klas.

Die klas, onder leiding van die aanbieder, doen die volgende:

- Raai presies watter moment uitgebeeld is..
- Hou 'n bespreking met vrae soos: Hoekom is daardie oomblik gekies?. Is die tableau realisties? Watter episode het dié moment vooraf gegaan? ensovoorts. Die vrae moet natuurlik relevant ten opsigte van die bepaalde voorgeskrewe werk en die tableau wees. (Hulle oefen dus om relevante vrae te stel wat hulle later kan gebruik om kontekstuele vrae mee op te stel.)
- Gee 'n opskrif of titel vir die tableau.

Indien die leemtes en behoeftes by letterkunde-onderrig in gedagte gehou word, en ook die doelstellings in die nuwe sillabus, word daar, deur die metode, voldoen aan taal- sowel as letterkundedoelstellings:

- Die leerder gaan op 'n meer informele wyse met die teks om, en voer sekere taalfunksies uit.
- 'n Deeglike kennis van die teks is nodig om vrae te vra sowel as om dit te beantwoord in die rol van 'n karakter. Hy tree dus binne 'n lewendige kommunikasiesituasie op.
- Dit stimuleer die verbeelding en kreatiwiteit, wat aangemoedig behoort te word, en dis genotvol.
- Deurdat die leerder op verskillende maniere met die teks omgaan, i) leer hy die inhoud uit verskillende hoeke ken, ii) is dit nie meer 'n monster waaroor net eksamen geskryf word nie, iii) word die letterkunde vir hom meer soepel, en iv) word hy blootgestel aan ander tegnieke met 'n verrykingselement.

Gesproke taal is 'n basiese uitvloeisel uit enige sosiale interaksie. Hieroor sê Evans (1982:173): "Drama provides opportunities for pupils to use a variety of language registers, in a variety of situations and for a variety of purposes. Not least, it provides a realistic context for talk which seeks to debate, deduce, plan and persuade." Hiermee word 'n belangrike doelstelling van die nuwe sillabus bereik deur 'n metode wat geweldig baie deur die leerders geniet word.

5.2.2 Laat waai!-spel

Dit is 'n woordkaartspel wat ontwerp is na analogie van 'n TV-program: 'n woord binne 'n sekere onderwerp word vertoon waarop die essensie van die woord verduidelik moet word en die betrokke woord geraai moet word. Die doelwitte is:

- verbetering van die kommunikatiewe vaardigheid op 'n informele manier;
- vinnige dink en kommunikasie in Afrikaans;
- uitbreiding van woordeskat;
- plasing en gebruik van spesifieke woorde binne 'n konteks;
- toename van 'n aangename leeratmosfeer;
- inskerping van logiese oordragsvermoë en die seleksie van die essensiële.

Laat waai! is 'n besonder sinvolle metode by letterkunde-onderrig. Belangrike woorde (wat antwoorde op vrae sou wees) word gekies en die woord moet binne konteks verduidelik word. Daar word soos volg te werk gegaan: 2 kategorieë van 7 woorde elk word op kaarte geskryf. Twee onderwysers kom na vore. Die een kategorie met sy 7 woorde word een vir een vir een onderwyser gewys en hy moet dit so vinnig moontlik vir die ander een verduidelik sonder om dele van die betrokke woord te gebruik. Die ander een sê "Laat waai!" indien hy nie die antwoord kan gee nie of selfs die eerste onderwyser indien hy nie 'n woord kan verduidelik nie. Daarna verduidelik die ander persoon die ander woorde. Afhangende van die teikengroep is 90 sekondes per kategorie genoeg. Dit is belangrik dat al die woorde nã so 'n spel weer deurgegaan word.

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5.2.3 Ander kort letterkunde-wenke

- Die sluitingstegniek word sinvol by taal- en letterkunde gebruik. Oller (1979:37) som die hoofdoel soos volg op:
"..... integrative tests attempt to assess a learner's capacity to use many bits all at the same time, and possibly while exercising several presumed components of a graduatical system." In letterkunde word hoofstukke of kortverhale op die manier opgesom.
- Voorts word belangrike aanhalings of waar of vals stelling uit die letterkundeboek op die bord geskryf. Deur middel van 'n bespreking moet besluit word waar die gedeelte in die boek voorkom en wie dit sê, of hulle moet besluit of hulle saamstem met die stelling of nie en dit motiveer. Op die wyse kom die "exploitation" (Fr) van taal ook tot sy reg.
- Om die probleem van onderskeiding tussen karakters op te los, word aanbeveel dat 'n oefeningboek aangeskaf word en 2 bladsye aan hoofkarakters en 1 aan minder belangrike karakters afgestaan word. Soos gelees word, moet inligting omtrent die betrokke karakter telkens neergeskryf word.
- Om die probleem van irrelevante vraagstelling op te los, word aanhalings vir kontekstuele vrae gekies en die onderwysers moet dan self vrae opstel en die antwoorde verskaf. Dit word dan gekontroleer.
- Vereenvoudigde "vorm"-blokkiesraaisels word ook gebruik.
- Baie aandag en tyd word aan letterkunde bestee omdat dit die meeste punte tydens eksaminering tel. Alles wat tydens die kursus gedoen word, is van so 'n aard dat die onderwysers dit net so kan gaan toepas.

5.3 STELWERK EN MONDELING

Daar is bewys dat 'n gebrek aan beheersing van die ritme van 'n taal dit vir leerders moeilik maak om die gesprekke van moedertaalsprekers te verstaan en vise versa. Robinett (1980:176) sê "This has little to do with their basic linguistic competence, but from the point of view of actual language performance, they do not conform to what native speakers have come to expect an in-

telligible norm." Om hierdie rede is luistermateriaal onontbeerlik, want luister met begrip is 'n integrale deel van kommunikasie en lê enige taal wat aangeleer word ten grondslag. Dit gaan dus om meer as net nabootsing/memorisering. Dit gaan om wat Allen (in Robinett 1980:178) aangee as ".... to listen with full attention to something that interest and challenges him; he is to get at the meaning of what he hears, and then produce a response that shows he has understood", met ander woorde formele/nie-formele taalgebruik, gespreksreëls en ook kulturele oorwegings in die luistermateriaal.

Dit is om hierdie rede dat kassette bevattende liedjies en die voorlees van sprokies gebruik word. Ten opsigte van mondeling moet hulle hierna luister en vertel wat hulle gehoor het. Dis 'n komponent wat gewoonlik baie geniet word.

Prente word ook gebruik vir storievertelling in 'n vrye gesprekssituasie. Tydens die Indiensopleiding word nie so baie tyd aan die mondelingmetodiek gegee nie, omdat dit nie soveel punte tel nie, en met die nuwe kommunikatiewe benadering is die fokus op kommunikasie, en die onderwysers word voortdurend daarop gewys hoe leerders met enige tegniek moet praat en dit ook as mondeling kan dien.

Wat stelwerk betref, word baie aandag gegee aan die skryf van paragrawe, die logiese opeenvolging van sinne, die opbou van paragrawe na 'n klimaks, ens. Dit word onder andere gedoen deur iemand in die klas in 'n paragraaf te beskryf, die slot van opstelle te skryf, 'n raamwerk vir 'n opstel op te stel, sinne in die korrekte en logiese volgorde te rangskik om 'n kort storietjie te vorm, ensovoorts.

GEVOLGTREKKINGS EN AANBEVELINGS

Uit voorafgaande is dit duidelik dat daar ernstige leemtes en eiesoortige probleme bestaan by die onderrig van Afrikaans aan Swart teikengroepe. Die probleme is egter nie onoorkombaar nie mits dit in gedagte gehou word en die metodologiese aanpak voorsiening hiervoor maak nie. Dit is belangrik dat die "probleme van die Swart Afrikaansonderwyser in S.A. nie in isolasie

gesien (moet) word nie. Baie van die probleme wat hier geïdentifiseer is, word ook in die buiteland in ander kontekste aangetref" (EOA 1985:40). Enkele aanbevelings kan dus soos volg opgesom word:

- Daar moet deeglik kennis geneem word van navorsing in die buiteland, van programme wat slaag of misluk, en insigte wat hieruit voortvloei moet toegepas word.
- Vanweë die sterk behoefte behoort daar meer fasiliteite en dienste vir Indiensopleiding te wees. "Hierdie behoefte spruit veral voort uit die lae kwalifikasies van die groot meerderheid van onderwysers tans in diens van die Departement, die feit dat hulle nie-moedertaalsprekers van die doeltaal is en hulle eie gebruiksvaardigheid oor die algemeen veel te wense oorlaat, en ten slotte uit 'n onbekendheid met die meer moderne onderrigtegnieke" (EOA 1985:39).
- Enige Indiensopleidings- en ook gewone onderwysersopleidingskursusse behoort kennis te neem van:
  - die geïdentifiseerde probleme van hul teikengroep en hulle aanpak hierby aan te pas;
  - sekere onderrigtegnieke wat uiters geslaag is en help om sekere probleme uit te skakel;
  - ondersteunende materiaal wat onder sekere omstandighede noodsaaklik is.
- Besondere aandag behoort gegee te word aan:
  - die onderwysers se eie gebruiksvaardigheid in Afrikaans wat in 'n groot mate die produk is van hulle blootstelling aan Afrikaans; met ander woorde 'n kognitiewe benadering speel steeds 'n belangrike rol, maar die kommunikatiewe en die toepassing van die kognitiewe inset moet groter klem kry;
  - Die wyse waarop Blanke Afrikaanssprekende dosente voorberei word vir hulle opdrag aan Swart onderwyskolleges.
  - Die bekendstel van onderrigtegnieke en die oefen daarvan deur die onderwysers sodat hulle selfvertroue ontwikkel om dit in die skoolsituasie toe te pas.
  - Die opstel van taal- en letterkundevrae en die antwoorde, asook stelwerk en die nasien daarvan.
  - Hulp ten opsigte van die letterkunde.
  - Die klemverskuiwing wat daar in die sillabus gekom het en die implementering daarvan.

- Praattyd aan die kant van die leerders, hetsy individueel of in groepe.

- Wat die Departement betref, behoort baie groter versigtigheid aan die dag gelê te word ten opsigte van die keuse van voorgeskrewe werke sowel as die opstel van die Matriekvraestelle. In sommige gevalle is die voorgeskrewe werk geensins geskik is nie bv. E. Müller se Van Eensame Mense wat vier jaar voorgeskryf was. In vraestelle word soms lae frekwente dinge gevra bv. die vroulik van leerling (Nov.1982) of vasvrasinne soos die ontkenning van Het al ooit iets gelees?

- Laastens: die onderrig van Afrikaans behoort so aangenaam moontlik gemaak te word.

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THE METHODOLOGY OF AFRICAN LANGUAGE

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THE METHODOLOGY OF AFRICAN LANGUAGE

1. INTRODUCTION

The teaching of an African language is the target of severe criticism. The major argument is that the teaching of mother tongue as first language is less effective than it should be and that many pupils experience a certain form of language deficiency. These pupils struggle with limited result to learn mother tongue.

Where does the fault lie? Does it lie with the teacher? Or are the methods of teaching wrong and irrelevant? Or are the syllabuses wrongly drafted? Something must be wrong somewhere.

The methodology of African languages has always given the education authorities much cause for concern. The practising teacher is equally affected. The methods he uses are not didactically accountable and in most cases are methods that are borrowed from second language approaches. No prominence is given to communicative skills. In order to appreciate the problem of teaching African languages, some background information is essential to make it abundantly clear how seriously teachers of African languages are disadvantaged in fulfilling their didactic activity efficiently and happily.

Ramone 1 identifies the following problem areas:

(i) The place of the mother tongue in the field of education in general;
(ii) poor academic and professional qualifications of teachers of African languages coupled with their orientation towards their subject;
(iii) differences of opinion on the grammatical structure of these languages;
(iv) the lack of the standardized terminology which can be employed by all the teachers.

When Swart 2 of the Department Education and Training addressed the Joint African Languages Subject Committee meeting in February 1985 he expressed his opinion as follows:

'For quite some time now you might have noticed that we have been talking about a new approach in the teaching of our languages. We have also discussed this new approach for some time now. We called this new approach a First Language to put new life into these languages. We spoke about this first languages approach, we wrote articles, we had courses for teachers, we had discussions with some of the Language Boards, we discussed this new approach with quite a number of academics from out South African Universities. We wrote this new approach into the new syllabus, hoping that it will in this way filter into every classroom in the country by means of new handbooks.'

But the question is, did all these efforts succeed? He concludes by making certain remarks that are in line with Ramone's observations.

Swart makes the following comments:

The first missionaries recorded the languages for their own edification and to be able to train a successor. This represents a third language/foreign language approach in recording and teaching and studying the languages.

These first missionaries became the first academics at our South African Universities and brought their foreign language approach as far as recording and teaching these languages into our universities.

This was quite satisfactory for at that stage only Whites studied these languages at university level. For them the languages had to be recorded, taught and studied as foreign languages. The problem only became acute when Black students were enrolled - no fault in that - but instead of compiling a new course for these students, they were admitted to the existing courses which were intended for

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the study of these languages as foreign languages. When leaving university they were able to talk about the language in a strange and learned manner. These learned academics became the first lecturers at teacher training colleges and were in a position to lecture on Setswana or Northern Sotho in a language that enhanced his status.

Artikel 3(b) van die Wet (Wet Nr. 90 van 1979) beklemtoon die universeel aanvaarde opvoedkundige beginsel van die gebruik van die moedertaal as medium van onderrig. Die ontwikkeling van die moedertaal is immers die sentrale punt van persoonlikheids-, gemeenskaps- en volksontwikkeling; dit is dus die draer van die kultuur. In die opvoedingsproses is die moedertaal die dinkinstrument en moet uitgebrei word om hedendaagse vordering op alle gebiede te omvat. As kommunikasiemiddel word dit die brug tussen die ouer geslag en die jeug.

The 'Vakadviesdiens: Afdeling Tale' of the Department Education and Training makes the following plea in this regard: 'Ongelukkig word die tweede of vreemdetaalbenadering vanaf die Universiteite en Kolleges deur die afgestudeerde onderwysstudente deurgevoer tot op skoolvak. Dit is 'n kringloop wat eenvoudig gestuit moet word. 'n Vakdidaktiek gemik op 'n eerstetaalbenadering is 'n absolute vereiste'. It is through subject didactics that the sphere of reality in which the teacher is to pursue his vocation will be exposed. The teacher who has a knowledge of the essentials also realizes what learning means.

2. SUBJECT DIDACTICS AND METHODOLOGY

Subject Didactics is viewed as a sub-discipline of Didactics. The word 'didactics' is derived from the Greek word 'didaskein' which means to teach, fitted to teach or intended to teach; instructive; to offer content or impart knowledge. Briefly stated, the word 'didactics' embraces the entire activity of teaching and of being taught.

Jardine 3 explains Subject Didactics as a theoretically based field of discourse in which efforts are made to define and describe all that passes for teaching and learning of specific subjects as a human activity. This implies that the findings of Didactics should be interpreted in terms of the specific nature of the African languages in order to present and expose these languages to the child in a pedagogic-didactice, subject scientific and methodologically acceptable and accountable manner.

According to Jardine 4, methodology refers mainly to a study of the procedures adopted when subjects are taught; whereas Subject Didactics not only embraces that study, but extends to an investigation into the theories behind the subjects, the reasons for their inclusion in an educational curriculum, their accountability in terms of human needs. Methodology is derived from the word Method (Greek - Mehtdos - meta, hodos, a way: the mode of or rule of accomplising an end.)

In the opinion of Louw 5 and Van der Stoep 6 Methodology and method endeavour to suggest an answer to the essentially didactic question: How should the teacher act in the didactic situation? The problem of 'how to teach' is influenced by methodology in a general sense. The 'how' of methodology is a general 'how'. The problem of 'how' to teach' is also influenced by method in a specific sense. The primary contribution of method to the didactic situation is to literally place learning content in the centre of the child's living-worlds. In this sence it acquires pedagogic and didactic accountability. Methods employed by the teacher must be accountable in terms of the following criteria as suggested by Louw 7:

(1) The method must aid the child to acquire a superior or more comprehensive and responsible knowledge structure. Swart 8 puts it aptly: 'Ons moet altyd in gedagte hou dat ons van die bekende na die onbekende moet beweeg in die onderrig van die taal. Bly ons nie maar altyd by die bekende nie? Wat leer ons die kinders?' This is especially true with first language teaching because this particular child comes

to school with lots of knowledge as well as communication skills.

(ii) The method must evoke a more accountable attitude towards the exposed reality.

(iii) The method must invite the child to authentic self-activity and in this sense, the method must lead the child with regard to the learning activity and the learning situation.

(iv) The method must aid the child to objectify himself from reality and experience the reality as meaningful.

The cardinal problem to be solved by Subject Didactics is: In what way can the eventual pedagogic and didactic aims be realised through the agency of a specific subject? In what way can African languages be employed to serve as a means to form the being-there (Dasein) of the child? Louw 9 maintains: 'the crux of the problem lies in the interpretation of both the academic pedagogical knowledge in terms of the demands of the practice of teaching'.

3. THE BALANCE BETWEEN SUBJECT SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE AND PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE

It is possible that either the pedagogical didactical or the subject-scientific aspect can be over-emphasised in the teaching of African languages. In other words, form is subjected to content or content to form. Form, in this case, is represented by pedagogical-didactical knowledge and content is represented by subject scientific knowledge. Should the form subject the contents of African languages, then the specific structure of African languages as an aspect of reality, is relegated to a position of lesser importance in the life of the child. In the past it was subject-study that was absolutised in the teaching of African languages. Some of the problems that dominated subject-study and that obscured the pedagogical didactical knowledge of African languages was the problem of orthography. The problem of orthography developed into another

stage in which the presentation of the sound symbols became the focal point of attention.

The problem of terminology became serious with the publication of grammar textbooks. The problem of grammar is as old as that of terminology with which it is closely linked up. According to Ramone 10, the problem involves the multiplicity of grammatical approaches which may be divided into five schools of thought, namely, the school of missionary activity, the historical school of Meinhof, the phonetic and the structural functional schools of Doke and the 'uiteenplaasbaarheid' school of Van Wyk. The other problems are of a literary nature.

In as much the same way as the scientific study of educational reality is practised by the pedagogic scientist, so too is linguistic reality studied by the linguistic scientist. Thus there exists a plurality of theoretical linguistic theories at any one time with adherents of each theory vigorously defending their favourite. Whenever teachers present African languages they use these theories as methods of presentation. This is one other reason that the pedagogical-didactical knowledge of African languages is relegated to the background.

What is of interest to us is how these theories can be linked to Subject Didactics. Jardine 11, mentions five well known linguistic theories:

(1) Language as an organism

Hermann Paul suggests an analogy between language and the development of natural organisms. If such a theory were applied to the teaching and learning of a language, it would encourage the idea that such language were a thing, a corpus to be dissected or a collection of objects to be classified. Such a theory has given rise to methods such as: the study of languages based on written forms only, such as Latin; to grammar; translation methods; to the close study of texts, parsing and so on.

(ii) Language as a structure

De Saussure insists on language being stable and systematic and this led to a rather precise formulation of structural notions with regard to language teaching and learning. These in turn, gave rise to the use of pattern sentence practice and inevitably led to the emphasis of form and structure at the expense of meaning.

(iii) Langu e of Social Behaviour

Firth recognizes the need to study the systematic aspects of grammar, phonology and semantics, but he regards these not so much as an end in themselves, but as a frame of reference for the study of language as part of the social process. He further stresses the need to examine what real people say in real situations.

The key concept in this theoretical approach to language teaching is context of situation. This is what Sekhukhune 12 refers to as the pragmatics of discourse - a functional approach. This social pragmatics includes speech markers occuring in various situational contexts such as matrimony, mourning situation, sacred and ritual situations, language and sex, language of the aged, rules of address, work situation, etc. The methods that are adopted put emphasis on the differences between grammatical form and communicative function. A study of dialects, registers, media, role, participants, status, setting, etc. forms part of the methodology, and this seems to make the study more appealing.

(iv) The Behaviouristic Approach

This is one proposed by B.F. Skinner. Skinner is concerned with describing language in terms of human psychology explaining it as a particular sort of behaviour. His ideas have had tremendous impact, and have led to the wide use of audiolingual methods in language teaching. These methods are mainly aimed at intensive oral and drills in order to establish automatic speech habits.

The use of language laboratories, teaching machines and programmes are the direct outflow of this behaviouristic approach to teaching-learning.

(v) The Mentalist Approach

Chomsky contends that if one has to explain language behaviour one must find some way of explaining and describing the unobservable. In other words, one should postulate some internal machanism which operates when one speaks or listens. The outward manifestations of such internalizations are the observable features of languages.

Chomsky further maintains that linguists should be concerned not only with describing observables, but also with constructing explanatory theories. At one level linguists should seek to explain why the rules of a particular language are as they are; at another they seek to uncover the general principles which underlie all languages. At this second level the level of universal grammar, the linguist is trying to establish certain general properties of human intelligence.

Chomsky's theories lay great stress upon the creative aspects of language. Snyman 13 summarises the creative aspect in this manner: 'die spreker kan 'n aantal nuwe sinne gebruik wat nog nooit tevore uitgespreek is nie. Die kreatiwiteitsaspek kom in die tweede plek tot realisering in die feit dat menslike taal gesprek kan voer oor gebeure wat geografies of tydelik ver verwyderd is. Derdens kan taal effektief aangewend word in enige situasie. 'n Vierde van belangrike kreatiewe aspek van taal is die moontlikheid dat elke kultuur 'n nuwe woordeskat kan skep vir sy taal.'

It becomes evident that the teaching of African languages will be influenced by these theories which have given rise to conflict and competition and threats to the teaching of African languages as first languages. A study of these theories as well as a study of Subject Didactics should prove of innovative value of the teacher. What is of importance is that the teacher of African languages

should account for everything that goes on in the didactic situation. A Subject Didactics-African languages must serve as a basis for the planning and design of lessons by means of which aims and objectives are to be achieved.

The formalization of the practice of teaching presupposes a lesson structure as a framework for what the teacher wishes to effect in the lesson situation. Inherent in the lesson structure is the purpose to bring about effective learning 14.

4. LESSON STRUCTURE

A lesson structure is a structure of the activity which generally appears when adults teach children 15. It is the structuring of the teaching activity. The structure is universal and does not refer to a specific activity at a specific time. Van der Stoep 16 maintains, the origin of a lesson structure cannot be sought after in any field other than the original situation. In other words, this structure reveals the components of a lesson as they appear in the original situation. This is the structural model or the infra-structure of any lesson.

Now, when one plans for a specific lesson e.g. a grammar lesson, the components of the lesson structure are still valid but are dependent on a number of factors that are found in that specific situation. Certain components might be more important than others depending on the nature of the topic and other considerations.

Of particualr significance is the fact that a lesson one designs is essentially a plan for the teaching activity that has to be actualized; it is the plan of a lesson that has to be made to function. That is why it is called a functional model. The functional model is designed on the basis of the structural model or the lesson structure. In the lesson structure the following aspects are distinguished:

4.1 CONTENT ASPECT

Contents naturally appear in the education situation as contents of living (existence). These contents cover a wide and varied field of man's daily activities. The content in terms of which the teacher teaches the child, cannot be strange to or removed from life because the contents cannot be found elsewhere than in life itself. In his presentation the teacher must succeed in offering a representation of reality to the child. Although content is often exposed for the sake of the content itself, the teacher always has the child's becoming and eventual adulthood in mind. This is a very important didactic matter: the child uses content either as aim or as means to aid and support the child.

Perhaps the greatest weakness in the teaching situation is that teachers do not know what they want to teach and why they want to teach that particular content matter.

4.1.1 Aims (goals) and objectives

While some educators prefer to use the two terms interchangeably it is useful to distinguish between them for the purpose of a lesson design.

Education aims refer to broad statements of the ultimate outcome of educational enterprises 17. The aim of education is to lead the child to proper adulthood. This can only be achieved through teaching and learning because teaching cannot be separated from upbringing.

Objectives are much more specific. They refer to statements of what students will be able to do or how they will be expected to behave after completing a prescribed unit or course of instruction. Bloom and Gagne have suggested categories of learning outcomes which will be helpful in defining objectives for a particular lesson. The didactical interpretation of educational objectives especially those in the affective and cognitive domains is regarded as significant in language teaching.

4.1.2 Reduction of learning content and formulation of problem

In addition to his intimate knowledge of his pupils and their concrete life situations, the teacher must have a thorough and profound knowledge of his subject matter. Interpretation of content is centered around the meaning of the content. It is therefore the task of the teacher to reduce the content to its essentials which will expose and explain the meaning of the content.

In the traditional school stress was laid on commanding large amounts of factual knowledge and the mechanical application of specific methods. The overloading of content, as a result of a striving after completeness was the order of the day. In the new school the stress falls on the design of meaningful problem situations in which the child can participate by observing, thinking, imagining and memorizing.

In order to design a meaningful problem situation, the teacher must, in his preparation, first distinguish clearly and unequivocally between that which should be specifically discussed and that which can or should probisionally be ignored. In his reduction of learning content the teacher must seek that which appears to be fundamental, essential and invariable.

Reduction of content is determined, among other things, by the nature of the particular topic previous knowledge of the pupil with regard to the topic at hand, pupils readiness to grasp new content, possible obstructions that may interfere with the exposition of the content and the manner in which pupil's understanding can be restructed to make room for better insight into the topic.

With regard to the formulation of the problem, Van der Stoep 18 mentions the following points:

(i) The problem should not just be mere verbalism. It must be meaningful to the pupil. The teacher should guard against

vagueness, ambiquity, bombastic language, and the extravagant use of scientific concepts.

(ii) The problem should be placed within the lifeworld of the child. It should emanate from the everyday experiences of the pupils.

(iii) The problem should be actual.

(iv) The problem should be postulated as functionally as possible.

In everyday classroom activity, the teacher usually announces the theme of the lesson as indicated in his scheme of work. The theme does not announces a problem. The teacher must make a problem of the theme.

An analysis of the didactic situation reveals that reduction of learning content is a primary and a necessary step before learning contents can be organized in a definite form.

4.2 THE FORM GIVING ASPECT OF THE LESSON STRUCTURE

4.2.1 Didactic Forms

A child is always taught and educated by means of content. He is constantly in touch with this content in one way or another. Contents cannot be moulded into any other form than the forms of life. The teacher must expose the contents by means of these forms. Conversation, play, giving instructions and making use of the example are human forms that have didactic relevance.

The adult converses with his child, tells him things, asks him about his own experiences; he plays with his child, he helps children to play with one another, he demonstrates certain play activities to his child; the parent also gives the child certain instructions, he insists on a certain routine to carry out tasks;

he makes use of examples, models, samples, specimens, etc. in order to explain things '18. This is what should happen in the teaching of African languages as first language approach.

It can be unequivocally declared that these didactic groundforms constitute the basis of all teaching methods and methodological principles or approaches.

4.2.2 Method

Each basic form, either jointly or separately affords scope for all the methods of presenting subject matter. Within the broad framework of the fundamental didactic forms particular methods will become apparent. There is a natural relationship between ground-forms and methods eg.

Conversation: Tell, relate.
Question and answer.
Demonstration.
Free activity.
Class conversation.
Learning conversation.

4.2.3 Methodological Principles

The teacher has a fundamental standpoint with regard to his manner of approach in chosing a method or a combination of methods. In broad terms learning content can either be approached deductively or inductively. In the normal teaching there is often an exchange in the use of the approaches of induction or deduction in the same lesson. It is therefore quite correct to speak of an inductive-deductive or deductive-inductive approach to a certain lesson.

Certain aspects of language teaching such as grammar can be understood effectively by means of the inductive approach. From particular examples the child can obtain a total view of a grammatical concept.

When employing the deductive approach, the movement is from the general rule to the particular: An example in the teaching of literature would be explaining the concept 'Short story' as a general and less known concept to pupils. The general characteristics of a short story are then applied to a particular story.

The teacher must carefully consider the use of these methodological approaches in the design of each lesson. The nature of the learning content, the readiness of the child, the available teaching and learning aids, the time available etc. are all factors which influence the choice of methodological principles.

4.2.4 Ordering (arranging) learning content

No content can function meaningfully if the content has not been meaningfully ordered. As soon as this is done, presentation assumes a specific form. If the learning content is arranged, it can be said that it is moulded in a particular organisational form. Some of the most important organisational principles are the following:

4.2.4.1 The symbiotic principle brings the child into contact with the real situations. The child is made to live with concrete situations of life. The initial instruction in the mother tongue is a good case in point.

4.2.4.2 The chronological arrangement is characteristic of subjects that have a certain historical nature e.g. History of language.

4.2.4.3 According to the principle of intergration every lesson in the classroom should form a unity and link up with the greater unity of the subject in question. This is what is generally referred to as cross-curricular approach.

4.2.4.4 With spiral ordering, the teacher aims at leading the child from a general and uniform understanding of a theme to a more complex level. His point of departure is therefore the most elementary aspect of the theme to a higher degree of difficulty.

4.2.4.5 Divergent ordering means that the teacher chooses a focal point and develops it into various fields. A prescribed book could be used to include various terrains of knowledge like grammar, oral composition etc.

The principles of ordering content discussed briefly are by no means comprehensive or the only principles in existence.

4.3 Didactic Modalities

Didactic modalities initiate the movement of the dynamism of the lesson. They point to ways or modes on which teaching and learning take place. By these modalities the planned lesson structure is not only given form, it is also brought into operation.

The teacher can teach a child because the child does learn. It is important for the teacher to know the modes of learning of the child so that he will be able to motivate the child to learn. Actualising principles on the other hand are a starting point for getting the didactic situation into operation. Actualisation deals with the recall of prior knowledge and previous experience. It can also take place in an activity which is new and where prior knowledge, methods and their various forms provide the means of giving meaning to the new situation 19.

The teacher may say to himself: I must differentiate, I must adapt my tempo, I must teach sympathetically, my pupils must be involved, I must be clear, I must motivate, etc.

When we look for didactic modalities in everyday experience the following are identified:

(i) actualising principles
(ii) modes of learning
(iii) didactic aids.

We now take a look at tempo-variation as a principle of actualization. By the nature of the demands of differentiation during the course of the lesson, a smooth or uniform tempo is impossible.

The tempo must be planned new for every phase of the lesson, for example, during the actualization of previous knowledge the tempo can be quicker than during the exposition of new content. Furthermore, tempo-variation implies that the activities during the lesson must periodically be considered and changed.

The most damaging criticism levelled against teaching nowadays is the unrealistic view that all the pupils should move at the same tempo for the simple reason that every pupil has his own style of learning.

The activity principle forms the basis of the actualization of modes of learning. It is evident that in his living world the child finds himself in different relationships, inter alia in relationship to the things and to others. Within these relationships the child proclaims himself as a learning person in various modes, namely, in his sensing, his perceiving, his imagining, his thinking and his memorizing.

It must be clear at this stage that there is an intimate relationship between actualizing principles, modes of learning and didactic aids. Then the question is not primarily which aid should be employed to facilitate the learning act but which aid must be employed to facilitate sensing, imagining, perceiving, thinking, memorizing, etc. for the child to find his own direction in the learning act. The functions of language in these modalities, if correctly selected and taken into consideration by the teacher, can lead to effective teaching and learning.

4.4 THE LESSON SEQUENCE

By way of summary, whenever a teacher prepares for a lesson theme, all the aspects of the lesson structure should be taken into

account and they should be planned for every phase of his lesson. Every lesson progresses through different phases:

4.4.1 The actualization of pre-knowledge

In almost every lesson the teacher must rely and build on knowledge previously acquired by the pupils. In this phase, the activities are directed towards brushing up and bringing the relevant knowledge to the fore. As this lesson phase is concerned with bringing already existing knowledge to the fore, didactic aids can be used very effectively.

4.4.2 Problem formulation

This must be done in such a way that the child experiences the problem as problem-for-me. It should invite active participation of the pupils. During this phase the pupil's pre-knowledge is converted into an attitude of enquiry. He will progress from the known to the unknown. It is important to note that the problem is closely connected to the learning objective. In fact the problem is the learning objective phrased as a question. When the problem is solved, the learning object has also been realized. In the teaching of African languages do we really pose problems for pupils to solve. Do we communicate effectively to the extent that a problem can be reformulated if it is not clear to the pupil? Most teachers of African languages where taught these languages in English and find it very difficult to put their thoughts in their own mother tongue. This violation interferes with the whole lesson structure.

4.4.3 The opening up (exposition) of new content

During this phase, the problem which was posed is solved. This is accomplished by bringing to light the essentials of the content and core concepts which were identified during the reduction. Reduction results in a chalkboard scheme. It is essential that a reduced chalkboard scheme should be constructed on the chalkboard

while new content is being unlocked for the child. This scheme is the core of the lesson as it represents the total structure of the new content.

4.4.4 Control of new content (actualization of lesson content)

The aim of the teacher should be to present the essentials of the content. During this phase the insight gained by the pupils into the new content, should be controlled.

4.4.5 Functionalization of the new knowledge

Functionalizing implies the transfer of newly acquired knowledge by the child to new situations. Pupils should be able to utilize their new insights in similar problem situations. They should be given opportunities to apply their knowledge to the solution of simple problems relevant to the lesson.

4.4.6 Evaluation

The problem of evaluation which includes testing, is well-known in teaching and no teaching is complete without it. Some of these evaluating and testing methods are the simple recall test, the completion test, matching test, the multiple-choice test, question and answer, essay, examinations etc.

Traditionally these phases were vaguely referred to as introduction, presentation, application and evaluation. Because these concepts have a wide interpretation teachers did not exactly know what to do in a lesson situation. There was no accountability whatsoever. An attempt has been made to supply the necessary guidelines for a methodology of African languages. Having done so, it is hoped that this will generate interest in this field of didactical discourse.

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THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN BLACK EDUCATION

TEACHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING:

COLLEGES OF TRAINING

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THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN BLACK EDUCATION
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Language has been identified as a problem in Black education and I have to introduce a discussion of this problem as it is experienced in teacher training. I shall refer to the situation as I know it, which will mean that the urban college of education will feature more prominently than any other teacher training institution. When, however, one places this specific situation in the broader context, against the role of language generally in an increasingly non-verbal age, one finds that at tertiary level, the problems faced at Tlabane, Eshowe, or for that matter, at Johannesburg College of Education or at Goudstad are not very different from those we are confronted with at the Soweto College of Education.

In a technological age 'communication' has come to mean nothing so much as the brisk exchange of information and the adequacy of language as means of communication has come to be questioned.

- There are quicker ways than language for conveying the factual, essential information required. There is a high premium on time today; reading and talking have become slow processes in fast-paced systems of exchange.

- There are more spectacular means, involving more senses in receiving and transmitting information. They have greater impact and are more effective than language.

- Other means of communication affect the role of language. Is it still true to state that we need language in order to think and to know, and that the limits of our language are the limits of our world?

Although we accept that the role of language has changed, in teacher training we still asume that natural language is the best means of communication and we expect language to do more than convey meaning flatly and effectively. Some of the 'outmoded' functions of language have to be restored for academic pursuit. We make demands that students have not been

schooled in and have probably not felt the need for either at school or in their communities. This applies to students generally, but it hits the Black student harder since she has to acquire and master the skills demanded by academic study in a language which is not her own.

The student is not aware of the nature of the demands she has to meet. We see language as a problem in Black education but the students do not all perceive it as such. According to the responses to a questionnaire filled in by 750 students at SCE, 193 do not regard language as a problem at all, 14 are uncertain, and 501 concede that language is a problem but only one among many of the problems they grapple with in their teaching. No-one saw that language was linked, even perhaps central to the other problems. Very few students could explain what exactly constituted the language problem, while causes and solutions were equally vaguely perceived.

Lectures identified and defined problems as follows:

PROBLEMS OF COMPREHENSION

Although receptive or decoding skills are difficult to measure there is evidence enough of students' inability to comprehend information transmitted to them from textbooks, notes, lecturers and research sources. In its simplest form this problem is manifested as misreading of definitions and instructions, the rubric of the questions in exam and test papers, and failure to understand simple factual information. Explanations or paraphrases often obfuscate rather than clarify. Well-meaning examiners who offer alternative wording of instructions find that simplification or 'slenderizing' seldom helps since unfamiliar words in a simplified version may cause utter confusion. Contexts seems to contribute little toward comprehension where reading word by word seems to be the practice. Terms such as explain, discuss, list, justify are not clearly understood and what the questioner wants remains puzzling to the reader.

- The problem goes further and is experienced as an inability to look beyond surface meanings in a written text or discourse. Everything is taken at face value - the author's intention is not grasped; idiom is misinterpreted and irony and figurative language are misread.

- Connected with this decoding incompetence is the inability to draw conclusions, find the gist of a statement or to infer, interpret or analyse, or to trace the logical development of thought in a written text. This problem is naturally exacerbated for the Black student to whom not only the vocabulary, but also the connectives and patterns of coherence of English are often quite foreign. Research essays intended as routine assignments become very difficult if source material is not understood and cannot be assimilated and internalized. Verbatim transcriptions abound and the entire exercise becomes meaningless. It is unrealistic to expect students to evaluate, or to query texts and opinions or to appraise and analyse stylistic features if they do not comprehend the words and structures they hear and read.

- There is a general inability to recognize the different functions of language - to distinguish between argument and exposition, and between persuasive and informative modes. This renders learners susceptible to all kinds of manipulation.

- Insensitivity to the finer nuances of meaning and tone and lack of discriminating perceptions inhibit the appreciation of poetry and other literary genres.

These are some of the problems of comprehension experienced by students. Let us look briefly at possible causes before we consider more closely the comprehension problems specific to reading and then at the problems surrounding expression.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO COMPREHENSION PROBLEMS

- Wrong attitudes to language and to learning. The heart of the problem lies not with the difficulty of text or concepts but with the relationship that exists between a student and his own learning, and with the language of learning. Knowledge seems to be perceived as an object, unchanging, though cumulative, and learning is equated with possessing this object. If you learn, you'll know.

No empirical support is necessary, knowledge is disconnected from the real world and from personal experience. Language is a set of rules that have to be learnt and a vocabulary that has to be acquired. Concepts are embodied in a certain grammar or language and meaning is thought of as residing in the formal language of a subject. If you learn the language you'll know the subject. Hull describes this attitude as

an objectivist conception of knowledge that turns language into a depository of information and ideas assembled in essentialist or simplified versions that students negotiate with as formalisms.(1)

'Learning' is seldom seen as a subjective experience of moving towards knowledge or towards coping with the empirical everyday world. It is seen, rather, as achieving through acquiring the proper terms, or language, a body of knowledge that exists outside the mind of the learner as a set of language forms. If you can cope with these forms you will be able to exhibit your knowledge by recapitulating texts, and you'll qualify and get a job and a living. Relating language and learning with the empirical world of the learner becomes even more unlikely if the language of learning is not the mother tongue. Obviously, because the 'terms of knowledge' are a further step removed from the 2nd Language learner, but also because of the distancing due to the particular way in which the L2 is learnt.

- ESL is usually studied structurally, as a grammar of sentences and not of texts. Students look at words in isolation, learn rules by rote and apply them in lists of 'exercises' or isolated sentences. Teaching is aimed at grammatical rather than communicative competence, and in order to practise particular structures students are often drilled in responses which are grammatically correct, but are awkward, even deviant in terms of meaningful discourse. For example

1. Robert Hull, The Language Gap, p.180.

Teacher: What is this?
Pupil: This is a book.

Too much of L2 learning is meaningless repetition of discrete aspects. Even 'comprehension' is taught as a separate entity and reading is often a performing skill rather than a receptive access to all kinds of pleasurable perceptions.

- The limited view of language seems to tie up with a prevailing authoritarian attitude found in schools attended by ESL learners, i.e. Afrikaans-speaking and Black students in this country. Education seems to be more teacher- than child-centred, and examination requirements are more important than the needs of the students.

- Comprehension problems may also be due to unrealistic assumptions on the part of lecturers. We generally expect students to draw from a cultural and capital that covers what is taught. Questions draw on this as well as on what is explicitly taught and very often this broader presupposed support is non-existent. We gloss over matters that we assume to be common knowledge but which in fact require careful explanation. Simplifications and compressed statements confuse if students are unable to appeal beyond them. Even when lecturers are aware of these 'vacuums' their commitment to completing a syllabus doesn't allow them to fill in on presupposed anterior knowledge.

- A deprived social milieu contributes to this problem. If the constraints of one's daily existence limit one's experience and thoughts, and the concepts one encounters at college are foreign and the terms that symbolise them meaningless; if there are, simply, not enough ideas in one's mind, nothing with which to compare or relate new notions, how does one go about decoding, seeking a relationship with a written text? The situation becomes almost impossible if the new notions and concepts are couched in terms which are only vaguely comprehensible since they are not in one's own language, but in a language to which one is only minimally exposed, socially and academically.

- Problems with comprehension must also be ascribed simply to the difficulty of the English language: inconsistencies of inflexions, syntax and spelling; subtleties of diction (what one student, voicing the despair of many, denounced as "too many synonyms!") peculiarities of idiom, distinctions of register, make English a very difficult language to understand.

Comprehension problems specific to the reading skill need to be looked at more closely before we move on to consider problems surrounding the encoding skills.

In a lecture on The Arts of Reading held in Pretoria in September 1985 Prof. Steiner from the University of Geneva pointed out how sociological aspects influence reading:

- Basic requirements are private possession of books, space, silence and access to artificial light.

- We are all excluded from the special relationship with a text that develops with memorization, since no-one is expected to memorize literary texts today. There is no oral repertoire of traditional literature.

- There is a general lack of interest in books. The printed word has become too tame a medium and reading too slow and too much of an effort.

- The culture of sound usurping the culture of reading makes one wonder whether the act of listening to music, or of 'reading by ear' i.e. listening to the recorded voice will eventually replace reading altogether.

There are further impediments to reading affecting Black students particularly.

- There is the problem of inaccessibility of reading material.

Although much has been done by independent organizations to relieve the situation, to most students getting hold of a book involves time, effort and money.

- In a traditionally sociable, gregarious society the reader may be blamed for anti-social behaviour and the silence and isolation required for reading may be hard to come by.

- Reading is largely a second language activity to Black students, and the content, until recently, has been mostly about 'English' life, not personally relevant to the Black reader. There is often an ambiguous attitude to African writers: a lingering suspicion of the quality of writing by African writers in English and a political resistance to African writers in the vernacular as subscribing to the Verwoerdian precept of "keep to your own". This attitude to their own writers may have contributed in the past to students' regarding reading as studying rather than as a pleasurable and indispensable habit.

- Reading is not sufficiently stressed and motivated in many primary schools where the attractive material available to the English child is not at the disposal of the Black child in her mother tongue.

- The secondary school teacher does not always encourage reading perhaps as much as her English-speaking colleague does, nor are the prescribed books an incentive to further reading. In the questionnaire mentioned earlier, to the question "Which of your high school textbooks did you find difficult to understand because of their language?", a large number of students replied that books prescribed for English (Hardy and Shakespeare were mentioned) were some of the most difficult 'textbooks' they had to master at school.

- The Bullock-report (1974) recommendation that there should be provision in school time for reading for pleasure, is not commonly observed in Black schools.

A paradoxical situation exists then: students enrol for a 'bookish' profession, teaching, and yet they have no real interest in books and have not acquired the habit of reading. Their training course requires intensive and extensive reading and assumes, indeed, relies on, students' mastery of reading skills.

- Some of the reading students have to do at college does very little to inspire a change of attitude towards reading. The pedantic tone, the formalism and total lack of latent dialogue with, and involvement of, the reader; the obscure terminology and pretentious jargon of many of the textbooks, some of them poor translations from Afrikaans, do little to encourage intelligent reading. Worksheets and lecturers' notes often echo the tone of the textbook and are no more persuasive or inspiring than they should be. Hull points out that textbook language often gives undue weight to the referential function of language, purportedly to be more effectively informative and that this puts a distance between reader and writer while the "obliteration of the distance between reader and writer is part of the experience of reading". Blank, voiceless informative texts do not involve or interest the reader.

  "Students' capacities for making meaning through encounters with texts are dependent on the extent to which their subjectivity becomes the substance of text."(2) But if texts are seen merely as instruments for conveying information, the introduction of enthusiasm and emotion is not encouraged, the reader's subjectivity is left out of it and the information remains divorced from the world and thought of the student. Scientific language: the use of the passive voice, omission of the article to generalize personal observations made in experiments, avoiding explicit terms like <u>some</u>, <u>this</u>, <u>all</u>, contribute to the depersonalization of learning.

PROBLEMS OF EXPRESSION

Problems encountered in applying the encoding or productive skills involved

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2. Hull, op cit., pp.188, 189.

in speaking and writing are more daunting than those surrounding the decoding skills. Most students admit that they understand more than they are able to express or describe, and most lecturers agree that students do not know how to express themselves or formulate correct answers.

Problems of expression involve inhibiting factors such as lack of confidence and fear of incorrect utterances and ridicule, and include structural and stylistic features such as

- lack of appropriate vocabulary and terminology
- poor command of idiom, inappropriate utterances
- inability to distinguish between formal and informal, written and spoken modes. Colloquial terms are commonly used in formal writing, and there is general inflexibility in terms of code variation
- wrong spelling, usually as a result of poor pronunciation
- inability to structure a sentence, paragraph, exposition or description logically. Lack of coherence and sequencing.
- Errors include incomplete sentences, mis- or unrelated participles, tautology
- Shortcomings are more blatantly evident when any sort of academic writing is attempted.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO PROBLEMS OF EXPRESSION

- Poor models. We need to listen to the quality of the language used by teachers, public speakers, actors, clerks, salesmen, their peer group and to appraise the language of advertisements, articles, official documents, novels and textbooks to realize what poor models students are exposed to. The L2 speaker is particularly affected since she has to listen and read in order to be able to speak and write.

- Lack of training. Students matriculated from schools are under-prepared in the skills of expression. They are not trained to argue, persuade, debate, discuss, motivate, even to speak and write confidently and creatively. The position is perhaps worse in Black schools where teachers, often forced to teach subjects for which they have neither the inclination nor the required qualifi-

cation, tend to discourage questions and discussions and to adhere slavishly to syllabus and textbook. The questing voice is silenced and argument is seldom tolerated where an authoritarian system prevails. Free expression is curbed in over-populated classrooms, and wit, humour, free exchange of views have no place, and peer-teaching is unknown. Richards points out how classroom roles affect productive fluency.

When the teacher is the instigator of communication asking questions, instructing, demonstrating etc. the learner may appear to be a non-fluent language user. However, when the classroom activity changes to that of a peer-teaching situation, the learner now takes on the role of teacher and may become a more fluent language user. (3)

The only kind of pupil talk that occurs in many classrooms is pupils' response to teachers' questions.

The kind of question usually asked anticipates factual responses, regurgitation of 'taught' knowledge, and right answers. Spoken responses are usually edited and qualified by teachers, not simply accepted and approved. Do we look for what pupils actually say or write, or do we simply look for and endorse the right answer? Even at college level we are inclined to look for the degree of correspondence with some text rather than for what students actually say or write. This applies to content but also to language where we insist on correct grammar. Merleau-Ponty (4) distinguishes between constituted and constitutive language. Constitutive language is when new knowledge or meaning is constructed with old signs and it is used when knowledge has been assimilated and a transition from grammatical to empirical everyday speech has been effected. Insistence on correctness blocks this process and encourages regurgitation of read texts or constituted language. The discrepancies between 'own' language and text language are evident from the copy of a page from an exam paper PTD III 1985 (see

3. Jack Richards, Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning, p.100.
4. The Prose of the World, p.13.

Appendix A). The first question 3(b) is the student's own language, 3(c) is the student's version of the language of a textbook. If expressing is equated with reproducing, productive skills are never learnt. If expressing means reproducing in a second language very little existential contact with the language of learning is experienced.

- Moreover, if the teacher/lecturer asks questions simply to procure evidence that the objective 'knowledge' has been learnt, and shows no interest in the learners' views, how can one expect students to become absorbed and subjectively involved to a degree that will allow them to overcome inhibitions of an imposed language and speak? We find that students very often simply lack the confidence to express valid, original, ideas. They do not trust their own opinions or their ability to express them acceptably. They have had no occasion or encouragement for expression and find themselves clumsy and inept in wielding language as a means of expression. Their 'security' lies in using the language of the textbook to express the thoughts of the textbook.

- A lot of writing is done in schools. When we visit schools in Soweto during the teaching practice session in April, it is not uncommon to find the 'grammar exercise' book of 80 pages almost full. It is also quite common to find nothing at all in the 'creative writing' exercise book. 'Creative' is in any case hardly the appropriate adjective to describe writing which is taught by building up in class constituted phrases, words and stereotyped descriptions. The entire practice of guided composition writing removes expression from empirical to grammatical language instead of "helping on the process of transcription from head to page".(5)

  Marking of 'creative writing' also belies the term since creativity, style, competence of expression count for very little compared to the weight given to correct grammar in L2 mark allocations.

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5. Frank Smith, Writing and the Writer, p.20.

- Lack of time is an important factor influencing expression. The constraints of the 40-minute period; commitment to covering the syllabus; lecturers' hyper-awareness of time induced by bells, predetermined test cycles, exam timetables and other external pressures tend to direct the pacing of learning to the lecturer rather than the learner. There is often not enough time for debate and deliberation and lecturers often solve the conflict between available time and time needed by students to express their doubts and problems, by dictating notes. Students don't develop the kind of language for their own constitutive involvement.

There are further impediments to expression which may contribute to the situation that Black students, people with an innate flair for language, find it very difficult to express themselves properly in English.

- The first of these problems concerns the state of the mother tongue. In Soweto and other urban areas not many students speak and write their mother tongue correctly. There is hardly a pure language since borrowings from other African languages and from English and Afrikaans abound, and a street language of mixed origins and mixed elements is used by students. A good many people in families of mixed-group marriages do not distinguish a single first language so that initial language acquisition is already befuddled. Lower primary schools are allocated to accommodate the language of the majority of the residents in an area but where there is no clear identification of L1 or where there are not sufficient schools, children have to attend L2-medium schools from their first school year.

  Universities, excepting Unibo and, I believe, the University of the North, teach African languages through medium of English. L2 approaches are adopted in teaching L1, and the L1 is deprived in the process. Teachers are often scornful of their own L1 and prefer English didactics of their own language. Teachers have to translate the syllabus from English into the language they teach and find it very difficult to do so because of the role of intona-

tion in semantics, and other features for which the terms are inadequate. L1 teaching has to a large degree been left to insufficiently qualified teachers. It is mostly the more recently graduated teachers who majored in an African language. Reading does not feature very prominently in L1 teaching. African writers in their mother tongue tend to level their writing at school prescribed work target so that there is not as much adult and young adult literature available in the vernacular as one would wish for.

His own language has stayed behind. The context of the modern Black urbanite has outgrown the precincts of his language - and because there were surrogate languages and because the surrogate language was expedient in more ways than one, the L1 did not develop concomitantly and became inadequate to the needs of the speaker. Linguists are agreed that the extent to which the first language is not developed must be seen as a limiting factor in second-language development.

This is the state of the mother tongue of Black students. L2 teachers and lecturers must take note and be realistic in their expectation of the transfer of skills from L1 to L2 and to English as medium of instruction.

- If the language of learning is different from the language of home and natural expression and feeling, intellectual development seems to proceed entirely separately from the emotions. This 'split' in the psyche of the L2 learner becomes particularly problematic in the study of literature where emotions have to be perceived and precisely appraised through the language of the intellect. Moreover describing one's own emotional reaction, already a difficult process, becomes doubly so if translation of language is involved.

The gulf between 'academic' experience and the world of home and community life is deepened by the peculiar social structure of this country. In many instances exposure to the language of instruction is limited to the school or college campus. After a holiday there is often a marked deterioration in competence. Social interchange with English-speaking people is minimal. English remains textbook,

academic, intellectual language, and the spoken idiom is seldom fully mastered, while the private world of personal relations, family life, emotional experience has a language of its own.

Teachers, themselves victims of the situation, have to assist students to integrate, to bridge, to use the terms of one world to express the experience of the other world.

- In many communities the Black child is not expected to express his opinions and desires or to register resistance and criticism verbally at home. He does not get a chance to develop powers of expression in his own language, and home environment, so that there is little chance of transfer.

- In a hardworking society lack of leisure and of time necessitates direct utterance. Abstract analyses and sophisticated applications of dialetic or analytic argument have no place within an oral tradition within which apt metaphor brings sublime thought back to earth.

- The fact that two official second languages have to be learnt early in their school career confuses children. At a primary school in Soweto it is regular practice for the teacher to wear a pink overall when she teaches English and a blue one for Afrikaans, to help her pupils distinguish between two sets of vocabulary.

- In the secondary school an emerging political resistance to one or both these language as the oppressors' language (commensurate with a rejection of Christianity as the religion of the oppressor) compounds the problem of two official second languages.

- L1 interference. Much research has been done in this field. Some of the most blatant errors occasioned by L1 interference occur.

Language problems such as have been held up here lead to classroom frustrations which perhaps add to the students discontent resulting in their attaching themselves to external causes which initiate stay-aways and unrest.

What then, should be done?

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

1. The importance of the teacher and the role of teacher training.

The most important single influence in education is the teacher. The teacher and her training can be used perhaps more effectively than any other factor to bring about improvements and solutions to the language situation. Colleges play a key role.

- Teachers' attitudes. Lecturers are often the victims of bad teaching themselves, and know what their students have been exposed to. Lecturers should then set new models, and by example and precept inspire students to be different. Innovative methods and techniques are required at schools. Lecturers should illustrate them. They should stay abreast of new development, keep in touch with research done here and overseas on methods and means used in their own subjects but also in language and applied linguistics. They should be concerned about their own competence, attend conferences and in-service courses, do elocution, listen to L1 pronunciation. They should read more, and read relevant material. Lecturers should have confidence in their own ability and language proficiency and instill such confidence in their students. What kinds of questions do we ask? Factual or reasoning questions? Do we like asking entirely open questions? If we don't, what are we afraid of? Do we allow our students the freedom to learn, that we would like them to allow their pupils?

- The personality of the lecturer is not as important as her ability to expose, to provide, to make available and to facilitate; to place at the disposal of her students <u>accessibly</u> the material and the tools needed to discover and to learn. Sources must be available in the classroom. We should not merely refer students to the library, we should make copies of articles and excerpts from books and magazines and circulate them. Introduce authors, discuss

current happenings, use the newspapers, harness TV, bring examples and specimens and aids and inspire students to follow likewise - to agitate for electricity if there is none, to rewrite the textbook, to redesign the curriculum if needs be.

- The lecturer/student relationship is very important. Personalized constitutive knowledge becomes possible if lecturers respond positively to students. Students' ideas must be used, they often know so much better than we do. We must listen to their questions, since they stem from what they already know, what they find relevant. I am not certain whether lecturers always know and understand their students, their language, culture, feelings, problems. Are lecturers sensitive to emotionally weighted terms, or do they use them unawares? Are lecturers concerned about the needs and problems of students and do they really aim at meeting their needs? Carl Rogers describes the influence of a single marginal remark made by a teacher in his essay book: "Why, Carl?"(6) Do we always want to know why? Students, as we have seen, so often lack confidence. Lecturers should boost, encourage, build confidence, reassure rather than criticize, give students the freedom that learning requires.

  Purist or condescending attitude to students' English is uncalled for. Many L1 intrusions could very well enrich English and should be accepted.

2. A second important factor to be considered is the curriculum. How can matters be improved? Let us consider the following:

- Textbooks and the need to revise, retranslate, and improve some of them.
- Prescribed books - suitability, criteria for selection.
- Approaches - communicative, functional - notional rather than the existing structural, audio-lingual.
- Earlier exposure to L2.
- Introduction of L3?

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6. Carl Rogers, Freedom to Learn for the 80's, p.140.

- Child-centred curriculum.
- Diagnostic tests, error analysis, needs-based programme.
- Examinations and meaningless learning.
- More time for language of instruction.
- Involving Black first language speakers in curriculum design.
- Transition courses - language development.
- Improving Special A and Special B courses.

At SCE, with the kind permission of our subject adviser we have experimentally adapted the existing syllabus for the Secondary Teachers' Diploma Course 1, 2 & 3 ENGLISH SPECIAL A 1st year course an intensive reading course is designed * to support skills
* to break down reticence
* to improve attitudes and relations to language
* to broaden the intellectual basis

Students make use of the computer to fiddle around with texts, playing around with sequence of paragraphs, comparing, structuring, isolating connectives, discovering relationships and shifts of meaning caused by structural changes, etc., a grammar of texts and analysis of discourse are employed. Rotating group activities provide for development of all four language skills and for individual tuition in large classes. 2nd year - the reading skill is given specific attention. Through literature the powers and possibilities of language are discovered and students are sensitized to the uses of language. Language is not a set of rules nor a means of getting education. Language gives access to knowledge of oneself, the world, people.

African writers are introduced and the reading is accessible, stimulating and invites analysis and identification. Literature uses language in a variety of ways, it is thought, imagination feeling. It brings together emotion and thought. Home language and school language are brought together. 3rd year - concentration in skills needed by teachers as well as a continuation of the literature program.

3. Introducing support programmes:
The following should be discussed:

- A post matric year of language study
- Transition short courses
- An entrance examination/diagnostic test which includes creative writing
- Full-time support programmes for individuals or small groups
- Remedial programmes.
- Better libraries, more textbooks

4. Broadening the functions of the English Department

- Support programmes mentioned under 3 above could function independently or be run by the English Department
- All exam papers, notices, circulars drawn up internally should be edited by members of the English Department
- Regular symposia on aspects of language teaching should be organized
- Extended exposure and practice of English must be effected through arrangement of inter-college debates, excursions, youth clubs, orator's contests, meetings, to counter the environmental disadvantage and encourage social exchange with L1 speakers.
- Responsibility for developing English across the curriculum.

5. Improving L1 instruction at schools. Once all the language skills are mastered in the L1 there will be easier and more effective transfer and complexification to meet the demands of the language of instruction. Parents who are not particularly keen on L1 at schools, can be made to see this.

Something can be done, and must be done to remove the 'obstacles' to education caused by the language problem. We must take heart and appreciate what linguistic ability we have to deal with. Most of our students are singularly gifted, linguistically, and have a particularly sensitive ear. They have achieved more, linguistically than many of us who have gathered here to bewail and discuss their language problem.

How many of us can speak 7 languages? How many of us have mastered the intricacies of the matric syllabi for Maths, Science, Biology, Geography through a 3rd or 4th language?

What language problems there are lie not with Black students but with the circumstances of their learning.

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AN EXPERIMENTAL AND TRAINEE-CENTRED APPROACH TO LANGUAGE-TEACHER TRAINING: A PROPOSAL

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INTRODUCTION

"A significant problem in the design of teacher-training courses in the past appeared to be a matter of identifying an appropriate mix of theory and practice in a range of prescriptive packages which would turn out a perfectly moulded teacher. If one accepts, however, that teaching is not only a dynamic but an organic process, then logically the fully-trained teacher cannot exist. The conventional approach begins to look less satisfactory and some re-definition of training objectives becomes necessary..... What we need is an approach which takes account of the teacher's own knowledge, skills and attitudes.... encouraging in him the same kind of independence and commitment to future growth which the communicative approach to language teaching aims to give the learner in offering not just skills but strategies for further learning." 1

The School of Education of the University of Bophuthatswana offers, amongst its other programmes, a four-year course leading to the degree of B.A. Ed. As well as courses in, inter alia, professional studies, development studies, and psychology, students follow courses in two major teaching subjects. The curriculum in English, divided into equal language and literature components, aims

"to prepare undergraduate students for the teaching of English in secondary schools or for related occupations in the field of education. The programme aims, therefore, to meet the needs of students in terms of a high degree of proficiency in English (both oral and written), a suitable background in language studies and a wide appreciation of English literature." 2

While teaching on the language, linguistics, and methodology courses in this programme we have increasingly felt the need to develop an approach similar to that suggested by Gillian Marsh in the extract above. We have

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1. Marsh, G. (1981) Focus on the Teacher. ELT Documents 110, London, The British Council (p.4).
2. University of Bophuthatswana, 1985, (p.178).

felt that in our courses our teaching has not been developing trainees' own communicative competence in English to a desirable level, that there have been shortcomings in our attempts to integrate language-teaching theory with language-teaching practice, and that we have not been helping our students to a sufficient degree to develop strategies for solving practical problems, of whatever nature, in their future teaching situations.

We have felt, also as Marsh suggests, that a more experientially-based course is needed, one which adopts a trainee-centred approach that rejects idealization of the teaching process, and one which guides the teacher towards responsibility for his/her own professional development.

In this paper we seek to describe and partially exemplify such an approach. The first part of the paper discusses some of the theory and rationale underlying the approach, taking account of problems we see as implicit in conventional language-teacher training courses. We discuss the competences necessary for successful language teaching, and consider ways of enabling trainees to develop the strategies for solving language-teaching problems which we feel are desirable. In the second part of the paper, by focussing on the treatment of a particular area of English syntax, we seek to show how such an approach may be realized in practice. We attempt to show how various levels of teacher-competence may be developed through an experiential and trainee-centred course methodology, and how the integration of language improvement, acquisition of language theory and of language-teaching theory may be integrated.

It is necessary to stress here that this paper deals with a syllabus which is very much at the developmental stage, and exists to date predominantly as a theoretical model. As we attempt to put our ideas into practice, we look forward to learning of the reactions and experiences of other teacher-trainers who share our concern that, as a profession, we have yet really to provide our students with their money's worth.1

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1 I wish to acknowledge a debt to a former colleague, Alan Waters, of the Institute for English Language Education at the University of Lancaster, many of whose experiences and insights in teacher-education have influenced the development of the ideas discussed in this paper. C.N.

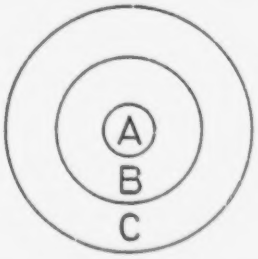
THE THEORY

Pupils in Black schools in South Africa spend many hundreds of hours over a number of years attending classes in second languages, and yet the successes of these learners in acquiring communicative competence in these languages are extremely modest, and are certainly not commensurate with the time and effort expended on language teaching programmes. The reasons suggested for this unquestioned lack of success are many and various, ranging from the mainly practical, such as pupil/teacher ratio, lack of facilities and resources, and so on, to the assertion that poor teaching, resulting from a lack of adequate training in language teaching (LT) techniques, is primarily responsible. We believe that the major source of problems does indeed lie in the area of teacher education but wish to suggest that it is a complete re-orientation in the design and implementation of language-teacher trained (LTT) courses that will lead us towards solutions, rather than a continued attempt to improve our methods of transmitting repertoires of LT techniques and practices.

Let us consider briefly the areas of competence that a good language teacher must possess. The first of these, which we shall call Level A, is the teacher's own competence in the language to be taught. As well as a high level of linguistic skill and communicative ability, a <u>confidence</u> in these skills and abilities is needed. The second area of competence, Level B, relates to the teacher's knowledge <u>about</u> the language to be taught, and to knowledge of the skills and abilities which make up communicative competence in that language. Also necessary here is the teacher's ability to <u>talk about</u> the language, its structure, its phonological characteristics, its rhetorical and discoursal organization, its range of dialect, register, and style, and so on. The final area of competence, Level C, is the knowledge of the range of available approaches and methodologies 1 which will enable the teacher to help others to learn the target language (TL). This will naturally include an understanding of the nature of language itself, of how language is actually used in communication, of how people learn languages (both first and subsequent),

and an appreciation of how this and other related knowledge can help a teacher develop and implement a range of language teaching strategies relevant to particular groups of learners.

We may represent the above brief discussion in the following way:



A = teacher's competence in TL
B = teacher's knowledge about TL
C = teacher's knowledge of LT approaches and methodologies.

FIGURE 1 Levels of competence for language teaching

There is, however, an important omission in this diagram. We believe that the relationships between these three levels of competence are of crucial importance and that there exists a hierarchy of dependence, from A to B to C, which has for too long been ignored, or at least given too little attention, in LTT courses. But we would wish to go yet further than this. By referring to a dependence hierarchy we may seem to be describing a uni-directional model, with layers of dependence simply being built one upon another. We would rather suggest a dynamic model where, though there is a hierarchy of dependence, there is also an essential element of interdependence, where each level of competence must necessarily inform, and be informed by, the others.

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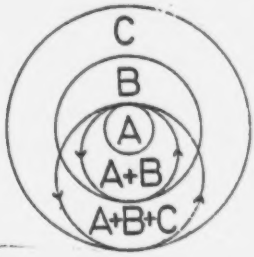
1 An approach is an orientation to the problem of language learning which derives from an amalgam of linguistic and psychological insights into the nature of the language learning process. A method is the application of the insights which constitute the approach to the problem of language learning. Typically, a method will have a pedagogic grammar - or grammars - associated with it, and principles which guide the creation of such grammars, the selection of elements to be taught, and of techniques for teaching them. (Adapted from Bell, R.T. 1981).

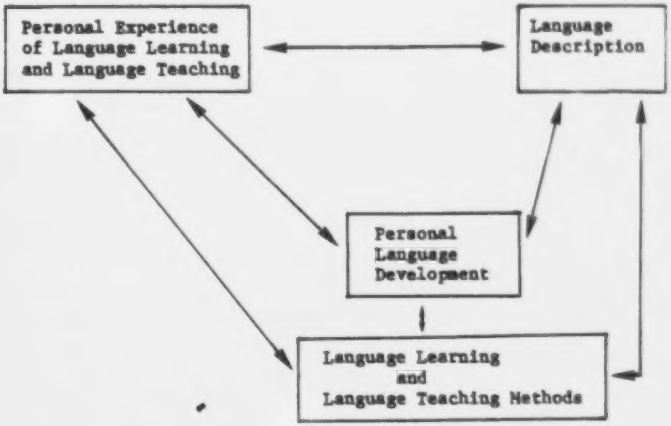
Our improved model might, therefore, look like this:



A = teacher's competence in TL
B = teacher's knowledge about TL
C = teacher's knowledge of LT approaches and methodologies

FIGURE 2 The hierarchical interdependence of a language teacher's competence.

Our representation in Fig. 2 may be made slightly clearer by the following, for which we are indebted to Mike Connelly of the British Council:


Personal Experience of Language Learning and Language Teaching
Language Description
Personal Language Development
Language Learning and Language Teaching Methods

We believe that in South Africa LTT programmes have at best merely paid

lip-service to this dependence hierarchy, that teacher-competence in the TL has not been achieved, nor perhaps even realistically aimed at, and that the interdependence of these levels of competence has been largely ignored. Given that the trainee-teachers with whom we are concerned are overwhelmingly L2 speakers of English, then level A competence assumes a crucial and critical importance. Without a high level of competence in the TL, a trainee stands little chance of gaining level B competence - knowledge about the language - and the danger of level C competence becoming reduced to little more than a survival kit of classroom procedures and techniques becomes very real. Not only do trainees need to develop these competences, but they also need to develop a conscious awareness of the interdependent nature of the relationships between them. A trainee needs to see how her own competence in the TL can inform her understanding and knowledge about the TL, and how both can inform her understanding of the rationale underlying various approaches and methodologies; and she needs to see how an appreciation of, say, the development of a particular approach may aid a re-evaluation of her own view of the TL, and how this in turn may help develop her own communicative competence in that language.

We are immediately faced with two fundamental questions: when and how should trainees move from A to B to C, and how should the relationships between them be made clear? Our own answers to these questions will, we hope, become clear in the course of this paper, but it cannot be emphasised too strongly here what we are advocating is <u>not</u> a perpetuation nor an adaptation of a 'lockstep' or atomistic process. This, we believe, is what has been the prevalent practice in teacher-training courses, and we are all too familiar with the recently trained teacher who has gained bits of knowledge from A and B and C, but who has not gained a holistic view nor experience of the field of language learning and teaching. Training has not developed in teachers the ability to allow what is seen happening at one level to influence what is believed to be happening at others; the process of reflecting and informing has been missing, and hence the ability or capacity to develop as a teacher has not been fostered.

We have already suggested that a widespread characteristic of conventional

LTT courses has been the 'lockstep' approach. A trainee proceeds in an orderly fashion through a progression of usually discrete course components, dealing at times with his own language proficiency, at others with separate aspects of LT methodology, such as the teaching of reading, or how to conduct an oral lesson, or "how to do a comprehension", and at yet others with the perhaps more professionally orientated side of a teacher's career in schools. At the end of this process, it is believed, a teacher will be produced. Throughout the course the material dealt with is trainer-selected and trainer-directed. With the overt concentration of debate on syllabuses, there is no attempt to develop in trainees the constructs and strategies for dealing with language to which they may be exposed, nor with the practical problems of language teaching they may encounter. To use two currently popular terms, there is a preoccupation with <u>product</u> at the expense of <u>process</u>.

There are other problems, too. Most teacher-trainers agree that trainees need reasonable doses of both theory and practice during a course, and conventionally deal with theory first, attempting only later to show "how it works in practice". In our experience, at the University of Bophuthatswana and elsewhere, this seldom works - students emerge relatively well-versed in theory, but in fact their practice remains fundamentally unchanged in the light of it. Since trainees' practice is doubtless derived mainly from their own school experience, it is hardly surprising to hear trainers complaining that, despite the LTT course, "they still teach the way they were taught". The training course has not raised school experience, nor other language experience, to a conscious level where it may be compared with, evaluated against, and perhaps integrated with insights gained from the LTT course. Furthermore, to discuss theory meaningfully demands the use of a whole range of metalanguage, and trainers frequently find themselves expending considerable effort in helping trainees learn the language of the course, in enabling them to participate in the reading, writing, and discussion activities of which the course consists.

Now, for some time the language teaching profession has been advocating an interactive and learner-centred methodology. We have seen our task as one of helping learners to develop a <u>capacity to communicate</u>, and the

emphasis on a communicative approach to language teaching has naturally led to a process- rather than product-orientation. We are suggesting in this paper that a similar shift of emphasis is long overdue in language-teacher training. We should be aiming to develop in our trainees a capacity to teach, a capacity to create the environment, the opportunities, for others to learn a language. What a trainee needs least, perhaps, is the survival kit of classroom tricks alluded to earlier, but needs most to develop a set of strategies for solving practical problems in language-teaching and language-learning. The trainee who has developed competence at levels A, B and C and who has gained an understanding of the hierarchically interdependent relationships between them, will have been enabled to reflect upon, and, it is hoped, to develop what constitutes this capacity to teach, and to formulate and articulate the strategies for putting into practice the fundamental steps necessary for the creation of realistic and purposeful discourse in the classroom.

It has been argued, see Waters (1982) for example, that language-teaching, like many other practical or skill-based disciplines, contains more knowledge in its enactment than any scientific description of the activity can yield. The re-orientation in LTT programmes which we propose is towards a more experiential approach, where the very experience of language, of language teaching and language learning, both before and during the course, is used as the basis for the development of the capacity to teach which we believe should be our aim.

Through such an approach theory and practice will necessarily be integrated from the earliest stages of the course, while the task of helping trainees to move from level A to B to C without losing sight of the relationships between them will become less problematic.

There is another major advantage to an approach such as we are proposing. LTT courses too often ignore the initial contributions of trainees, who arrive at the beginning of a course with varying degrees of competence at level A, some knowledge (however erroneous) at level B, and much experience of and exposure to level C. We ignore this at our peril since, if new experience is not somehow integrated with old, it will have to be either rejected or accepted, and any lack of confidence or understanding

will tend to encourage trainees to fall back on familiar and apparently unthreatening practices.

It is in the classroom that almost all initial trainee knowledge has been gained, and it is here, in the classroom, that our training course should begin. We suggest that examples of, exposure to, and experience of classroom interactional discourse should be the starting point and focus for the major portion of the activities and content of the LTT course. By examining aspects of classroom language, both written and spoken, trainees will be able to reflect upon what they already know, and their own experience will inform and help make sense of the new knowledge they are acquiring. Focus on trainees' own language competence (i.e. level A competence) through the analysis of classroom discourse will allow for and encourage an integration of knowledge about the language (level B competence); and since not only language but language-learning and -teaching goes on in classrooms, discussion at level C may also be integrated and the insights gained be allowed to permeate down through level B to level A. In this way a natural demand will be created for the discussion of theory and for the metalanguage that this requires, and trainer-selection of issues of importance will be kept to a minimum.

There is a final advantage to this approach, and this is that much of the methodology of the LTT course, necessarily interactive and heavily learner-centred, will reflect the methodology we hope our trainees will adopt in their target teaching situations.

THE PRACTICE

We envisage, then, a language-teacher training syllabus that takes account of the dependence hierarchy discussed above; that is, it recognizes that students must themselves have a sound competence in the TL before they can usefully or productively approach the study of the language in theoretical terms; and they need competence in both these areas before they can, with real understanding, begin to devise strate-

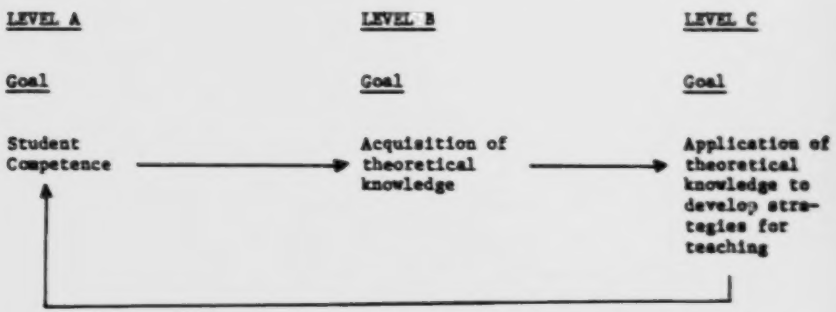
gies for facilitating the development of the language competence of others. At the same time, our syllabus would recognize the interdependence of these competences, and thus the interdependent nature of the relationship between theory and practice. It would also take account of the knowledge and experience that the trainees bring with them to their learning.

To outline such a syllabus in any detail is beyond the scope of this paper; however, in order to exemplify what have thus far been only theoretical proposals, we shall consider how one small component of the syllabus might be realized in terms of actual learning and teaching. An element of the syntax of English which seems to present problems to both learners and teachers in Southern Africa is the verb phrase. Let us consider, in some detail, how in our LTT course we might deal with one small feature of the verb phrase, namely the progressive aspect in relation to the present tense in English.

We would envisage three 'levels' of teaching, as follows:

VERB PHRASE

Progressive Aspect - Present Tense



At each level the materials would be very similar, and in some cases the same. The material, or perhaps a better term would be language data, would consist in the main of examples of classroom discourse.1 The data

might include video-tapes, audio-tapes, and transcripts of spoken language across the curriculum; also included might be examples of written language produced by school pupils in all their subjects, and language encountered by them in school textbooks, again across the curriculum.

At level A, we might begin by asking the trainee to write down anything at all that he/she had learned about 'the present continuous tense' at school. The next step might be to give the trainee a short test on the progressive, perhaps the following (taken from: Thembela et al., Let's Use English, Std. 6)2

a) Do a testing exercise for the Present Continuous Tense.
Do this exercise to help your teacher find out if you know how to use the Present Continuous Tense.
Some of the sentences below are correct and some have an error in them. Write out all the sentences, as a paragraph, correcting the ones that are wrong.

Mary and her mother are shopping

Mary is liking shopping very much.
She is shopping with her mother at the moment.
She is wanting to buy a new dress.
Also, she is needing a new pair of shoes.
Her mother is looking at some dresses in OK Stores.
Mary is trying on some shoes in a shoe shop.
They are knowing what they want, but they cannot find it.

Your teacher will check your work to see if you have corrected all the mistakes in the sentences.

1 The use of classroom language data facilitates the integration of theory and practice: trainees can collect their own examples of classroom interactional discourse during periods of teaching practice.

2 We feel that it is important that trainees are exposed to a wide range of sources such as those they may encounter in schools. The extracts used in this paper are, therefore, intended to be simply representative, and we do not intend that they should necessarily be seen as recommended texts, or as 'good' or 'bad' examples of material.

After the 'test' the correct answers would be given and trainees would 'mark' their own and/or their colleagues' work. Trainees would then be asked if they had made any mistakes. If they had (and, from our experience, we predict that they would), they might then be asked to read the following information from Let's Use English in order to understand and explain their errors.

> b) Read about how to use the Present Continuous Tense.
> Read about the Present Continuous Tense.
> You can use the Present Continuous Tense to talk about things that are happening at the same time as you are speaking.
>
> The sun is shining.
> Mary is shopping.
>
> You can use these words with the Present Continuous Tense/
>
> at the moment
> now
> The sun is shining now.
> Mary is shopping at the movement.
>
> There are some verbs that describe how we feel and think which we cannot use in the Present Continuous Tense. For instance, it is wrong to use the Present Continuous Tense with the verb 'like'.
>
> X I am liking ice-cream very much. X
> We must use the Simple Present Tense.
>
> ✓I like ice-cream very much.✓
>
> Write out the verbs below in two lists. In one list, put all the verbs that can be used in the Present Continuous Tense. In the other list put all the verbs that cannot be used in the Present Continuous Tense.
>
> go-know-hear-eat-throw-believe-leave-want-kick-see-understand-sit-jump-wish-read-need-cost-have-grow-play

It is likely that consideration of the above would lead to some discussion of those verbs which cannot be used in 'continuous forms', and some supplementary information might then be presented to trainees, such as the following (from Lennox Cook, et al):

II. GRAMMAR

THE PRESENT TENSE
(passim)

Remember that the Present tense, like all tenses, has two forms.

The Present Simple is used for actions that occur habitually or from time to time, and for general truths:

The doctor visits his patients every day.
(habitual action)

They occasionally ask me to dinner.
(from time to time)

Pineapples do not grow on trees.
(general truth)

The Present Continuous is used for actions in progress, or unfinished, AT THE TIME OF SPEAKING:

The children are playing in the garden.
(in progress at the moment of speaking)

He's writing a book about animals.
(unfinished at the moment of speaking)

Here are the forms being used together:
It rains a good deal at this time of year. As you can see, it's raining now.

This passage about Africa is written mostly in the Present Simple.
The plantations spread ... The central plateau ... stretches away ... into the heart of Africa ... baobab trees stand in groups like wooden tubs ... Ostriches move in the long grass and herds of antelopes bound across the plain.

Now imagine you are looking at a photograph of such an African scene and are asked to describe it. You will say:

In the foreground a troop of ostriches is moving (NOW).
Behind them some antelopes are bounding (NOW) across the plain and an African is watching them (NOW).

But notice you will say:

Baobab trees stand ... the plateau stretches away ...

because these are permanent truths.

It is therefore important to recognize the difference between permanent and impermanent features of a scene.

Water is dripping (impermanent - only now) from the trees that line (permanent - always) the road.

There is one special idiomatic use of the Present Continuous which we should look at:

She's always losing her gloves.
It's always raining when I want to go out.
We are constantly being told that young people are spoilt.
I'm always seeing that girl outside that café.

The Continuous form, used with the adverbs always, constantly, and other adverbs and adverbial phrases of similar meaning, has the meaning of keep + Present Participle, e.g.

She keeps losing her gloves.

It usually suggests PERSISTENT CHANCE OR PERSISTENT IRRITATION.

Students might then be asked to consider the following:

"You can use the Present Continuous Tense
to talk about things that are happening
at the same time as you are speaking".

(Let's Use English)

Discussion of this rule might be initiated by viewing a short video extract (say 5 minutes) of a teacher demonstrating the use of the present progressive in a typical S.African classroom, using language such as, "I'm writing on the chalkboard/I'm opening the door", etc. Trainees would be asked whether people actually use language in this way in normal communicative interaction; they would then be asked to write down perhaps three examples in which they themselves would use the 'present continuous' naturally. Both these sets of data would then be compared with real texts, both written and spoken, in which there are instances of the natural use of the present progressive. Students would then be asked to identify what 'time' the tense refers to in each instance, leading to a consideration of the use of the present progressive to refer to future time. Again, discussion may be encouraged by reference to a school text book, such as the example below, and students would be asked to reconsider their own three 'natural' examples in terms of their meaning in relation to time.

The Present Continuous (I am doing, etc.) with a future meaning expresses arrangement, the maximum of human influence.

He's giving a little party tonight.
The Council is meeting next week, and the Secretary-General is seeing the heads of state involved.
Well, as the builders are coming at the crack of dawn tomorrow, I'm going to bed.
I'm not seeing him again till Sunday.

Note that one CANNOT, for example, say: I am being ninety tomorrow. This fact is outside the power of human influence. If one said, "I'm having 'flu tomorrow", it could only incan that one intended to PRETEND to be ill, in order, for instance, to avoid some unwelcome visitors.
And remember, finally, that one of the commonest mistakes students make in the spoken language is to say: "Do you go ...?" (Present Simple) when what they really mean is

"Are you going to town this afternoon?"
(Present Continuous).

(From Lennox Cook et al.)

By looking at the data again, students would now attempt to establish which of these uses of the present progressive is more common in written and spoken texts.

Students might then go on to look at how present time is expressed or referred to in written and spoken texts; this would lead to a comparison of the uses of the simple present and present progressive tenses, and could involve texts from a variety of such subjects, including, for example, descriptions of scientific processes, generalization, definition, etc., the emphasis here being on the communication of meaning. Students might then be asked to practise some of these kinds of writing themselves.

Finally, trainees would be asked to look again at the original statements they had made regarding what they knew about the present progressive, and would be asked whether they still agreed or whether they wished to change, adapt, or expand in any way what they had written.

At first sight, this may seem a lengthy and laborious procedure. However, we believe that this need not necessarily be so. If groupwork were to be used fairly extensively, and if groups were given different

data to work with and later compare, we feel that the tasks could be completed in a realistic time. Furthermore, as we would no longer be separating our time rigidly into language on the one hand and methodology on the other, we would actually have more time at our disposal than might at first seem to be the case.

It will be clear that this approach takes the trainees' own experience and knowledge as a starting point, and then proceeds both to refine and broaden it through new experience of and exposure to language; it gives trainees opportunity to reassess their prior knowledge and competence. We believe that it is through such a process that trainees will become confident in both their use and understanding of the language.

It can be seen from this rough outline of teaching procedure that, although we have been working at level A, we are already beginning to develop level B and C strategies. Students are beginning to reflect upon the nature of language; they are becoming aware that English is used in differing ways across the curriculum; they are becoming consciously aware of the ways in which they were taught, and so on. All this is implicit in what they learn, and need not at this stage be referred to directly, yet it will form a base of understanding that can be built on at levels B and C. Explicitly, the goal at level A is the communicative competence of the trainees themselves, and it is this which will determine whether a particular student should move from level A to level B.1

Before moving to discussion of level B work, it is worth pointing out here that in terms of our syllabus we do not exclude the possibility of a 'hidden agenda' in terms of the language to be taught - this would form the content of the syllabus and would be reintroduced at each level. Thus, ours is not a process syllabus in the Breen and Candlin sense 2 but would be a process syllabus with regard to the development of strategies

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1 It is perhaps useful to distinguish between goals and outcomes. The goal provides the focus for the course at a particular level, but there will be many outcomes resulting from the interdependence of the three levels of competence.

2 See Breen, M. and Candlin, C. "The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching". Applied Linguistics, 1:89-112.

for learning, understanding, and teaching language. Furthermore, in our syllabus the division (probably false, or at least exaggerated, in our view) between learning a language and teaching a language would be reduced.

At level B the focus of learning shifts from the students' own communicative competence to the development of an understanding of the nature of English, its structure, phonology, patterns of discourse, and so on. Thus at some stage at level B the students would reconsider the progressive aspect of the present tense in English. As a result of their experiences at level A, they should already have considerable knowledge, however unformalized, about the present progressive. They would be asked to recall this and then, with reference to grammars such as the GCE, CGE, and UCE1, they would investigate more deeply the conceptual distinctions which underlie our use of the tense system of English. In addition, they would learn a new metalanguage to describe this: the progressive aspect, stative and dynamic, finite and non-finite, and so on. Again, we would ask trainees to look at language data, and the type of questions one might ask are whether the grammatical description explains the data sufficiently and whether it is useful to the learner. In cases where the data contains incorrect usage of the present progressive, students might be asked to explain how and why these errors had been made. One might ask students to compare the limited description they were given at level A with the fuller descriptions of level B, and to consider what purpose the latter serve. It would be useful here, also, for trainees to use their new theoretical knowledge to evaluate the descriptions or explanations given in a range of school-level language text books. At this level, students would be given every opportunity to talk about the language and to develop confidence in doing so, and would be asked to reassess their prior knowledge of the present progressive and to attempt to determine whether or not they had acquired a greater understanding of it. At this

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1 Leech, G.,Svartvik, J. Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., A Grammar of Contemporary English, London, Longman, 1972.
Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1975): A communicative Grammar of English. Harlow, Longman.
Quirk, R. & Greenbaum, S. (1973): A University Grammar of English. London, Longman.

level, emphasis would be placed on seeing language as a system and on relating to each other the various parts of the system encountered at level A.

At level C, the focus shifts to developing an understanding of how language is learnt, and to the application of this knowledge, and that gained at level A, to the development of strategies to enable learners to acquire communicative competence. In our experience theories of language-learning and language-teaching, when taught in vacuo, remain mere theories; they need to be related to concrete examples of learning and teaching.

Let us consider, then, how we might deal with the present progressive at level C. Students might be given some pre-reading material, perhaps on Krashen's Monitor Theory/Naturalistic Language Learning. They would be asked to consider their own learning of and about the present progressive in the light of this theory (or, perhaps, vice versa), addressing such questions as:

- Did the conscious learning of rules help <u>me</u> in my acquisition of the present progressive?

  In which case, is Krashen's distinction between learning and acquisition valid?

  To what extent did I/do I use rules to monitor my performance of the present progressive?
  Does this help or hinder me?

  Is there any value in teaching rules?

  In view of the Monitor Theory, are rules more important for writing than for speaking?

  Does my experience bear this out?

  Krashen seems to base much of his theory on his own experience of learning language - does the experience of other language learners support his theory?

  Even if we don't teach rules explicitly, we might say that it is important for the teacher to understand the rule system of the TL (level B) in order to select/grade language. Yet Krashen would see this as interfering with the pupils' language learning. From your experience of learning English, how would you judge this?

Having dealt with theoretical issues such as these, students would then be asked to consider how one would actually teach the present progressive, if at all. This would begin with students identifying what worked and what did not work in their own experience of learning, in their experience of practice teaching/micro-teaching, and would include detailed examination and evaluation of materials, textbooks, and methods.

It will be seen from the above that trainees are encouraged as far as possible to use their own experience of learning English, integrated with their own knowledge about English, to give them insight into how to teach the language. We believe that our trainees have certain advantages over the teacher who is a native-speaker of English in that they have first-hand experience of learning the language, and are competent in both their learners' L1 and the TL. Yet in existing LTT courses, little is done to exploit this.

There is one final element in our syllabus which we have not yet mentioned. In order to collect case-study material on language-learning processes, strategies, and affective reactions, as well as on language-teaching processes and strategies, trainees would be encouraged to keep reasonably detailed diaries of their experiences. The material in these diaries would contribute to discussion at all three syllabus levels.1

1cf. Rivers, W. (1983) Communicating Naturally in a Second Language. Cambridge, C.U.P. (Chapter 13: Learning a Sixth Language) and Naiman, N.,et al. In: The Good Language Learner, Toronto, OISE, 1978.

CONCLUSION

In this paper we have sought to propose a move towards an experiential and process approach to language-teacher training. As we stated in the Introduction, it has been through problems we have faced at our own institution, such as the relationship between theory and practice, or the feeling of under-exploitation of trainees' own experience, that our ideas have developed. What we have tried to build into the syllabus is an inherent flexibility, and an adaptability to the needs and concerns of the trainees with whom we are dealing. The 'hidden agenda' of language to be taught, for example, could change depending on students' evaluation of their experiences at level A, or on the collection and analysis of language data by the trainees themselves which could provide new insight into what needs to be taught. The syllabus is, therefore, not in any way structurally-based, since throughout the course the focus would be on learning and teaching language <u>use</u>. And throughout the course, insights gained at one level, and indeed in schools, could influence subject areas yet to be dealt with at others.

We accept that in the course of this paper we have begged several questions and left a number of areas of possible difficulty unexplored. We feel justified in doing this since, as we have said, we are still very much at the developmental stage.

We should like to end, however, by putting forward a question which is suggested immediately one contemplates the implementation of a syllabus such as that we have proposed: Does the structure of the conventional institution for tertiary education provide the most suitable, flexible, and adaptable environment for successful <u>teacher</u> education? Our own reaction when we consider putting into practice at our own university the ideas suggested in this paper is initially a negative one. If we believe that, in order to develop a capacity to teach, a trainee language teacher needs to be given the opportunity to work with and experience language, language-learning, and language-teaching, in the ways we have exemplified, then perhaps we should also be contemplating a radical restructuring of the environment of courses in teacher education.

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IN-SERVICE TRAINING

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IN-SERVICE TRAINING

1. INTRODUCTION

Developing countries in Africa are today confronted with a myriad of educational problems. The largest and most important of these is most probably that of the inadequately trained teacher (Evans, 1963: 27). This ever-increasing demand for education, is aggravated by an unrealistic birth rate in developing countries in the Third World.

The problem of Third World countries which have been freed from colonial domination, differs fundamentally from the educational crisis as found in the capatalistic - industrialized countries in Europe and other parts of the free World (Timar, 1976 : 232). Financial aid from free World countries and aid organizations of the United Nations Organization to eliminate these problems has proved grossly inadequate, with the result that these developing countries have had to provide the necessary funds from their own budget.

One of the most fundamental reasons why the in-service training of teachers is of paramount importance, is that it is just not possible to replace untrained or inadequately trained teachers with well-trained teachers in developing Third World countries.

In-service training programmes developed for teachers are aimed at changing the teacher's behaviour and performance patterns so as to upgrade his/her level of efficiency in the classroom. Some of the most important reasons identified for the continuing and in-service training of teachers are the following:

- Untrained or inadequately trained teachers;
- changes and adaptations in educational technology, method and apparatus;
- development of new techniques for the daily instruction of pupils;

- guidance and training of teachers so as to enable them to be innovative and to accept new training programmes;
- differences between initial and professional expectations, and
- the changing role of teachers due to a rapidly changing culture and environment.

2. EXISTING IN-SERVICE TRAINING MODELS

For the purpose of this discussion we identify four of the most widely used models for the in-service training of teachers.

2.1 THE CENTRALIZED COURSE BASED MODEL

This method of in-service training is the one most commonly found. The system whereby teachers are withdrawn from the classroom to further their professional development had its origin during the nineteenth century at a stage when formal education was spreading rapidly (Henderson, 1979 : 18).

Although this model has proved successful in certain circumstances it has more often than not failed to influence practical education in the classroom.

2.2 SCHOOL-BASED INSET

This model consists of three elements i.e.

- need assessment : identifying and defining the needs that have to be satisfied.
- programme development : developing and implementing appropriate in-service activities to satisfy the identified needs.
- evaluation : assessing the level of success achieved with the in-service training programme.

The method of on the job training can provide the necessary concrete, reflective, abstract and active experiments which are fundamental for individual, group and curriculum change.

Implementation of newly acquired knowledge and techniques in the classroom are far more likely in this case as participants are involved in the planning and developing of course objectives, materials, et cetera from the start.

2.3 THE CORRESPONDENCE COURSE

This method of in-service training has a number of advantages e.g.

- it is a relatively cheap method and
- teachers are not withdrawn from their classrooms.

It does, however, also have a number of disadvantages e.g.

- it limits the variety of courses which can be offered
- it does not provide for on the job follow-up training
- the teacher is totally dependent on himself with respect to studying times, methods of study and the rate at which work will be completed.

2.4 THE COMBINED MODEL

Experience with the in-service training of teachers has already showed that it cannot be assumed that because certain conventional models of in-service training have been successful in developed countries, that they will be just as successful in developing countries. This has led to a number of combined models being developed to satisfy the particular needs of specific developing countries.

Consequently an in-service model consisting of centralized and decentralized courses during school vacations or week-ends, correspondence assignments which are submitted for evaluation, and

on the job training periods through visits to teachers at their respective schools has been developed. With the use of this model, the success of in-service training of teachers in developing countries can be assured.

3. PERSPECTIVES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

At present the in-service training of teachers within the Department consists of the following:

3.1 IN-SERVICE TRAINING WHICH DOES NOT LEAD TO A FURTHER OR HIGHER QUALIFICATION

This consists of

- centralized courses offered at the College for Continuing Training at Soshanguve;
- centralized and decentralized courses offered by educational advisers from head office, and
- decentralized courses offered by educational advisers in the various regions.

Courses are used to

- introduce new sillabi content
- disseminate information on newly developed and improved teaching techniques
- serve as refresher courses.

These courses are aimed at increasing the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter and subject didactics.

3.2 IN-SERVICE TRAINING WHICH LEADS TO A FURTHER OR HIGHER QUALIFICATION

Specialization courses of one year duration are offered at the College for Continuing Training and various Teachers' Colleges in,

e.g. Remedial Education, School Librarianship and Media Science, Art, Physical Education and Woodwork. Teachers successfully completing such a course are awarded a further teacher's certificate for a higher category classification.

A new system whereby the in-service and further training of teachers will be treated as separate entities is at present being developed.

At present the Department has in its service + 46 000 teachers of which + 78 % (+ 36,000) are not in possession of a Category C or Matric + 3 years qualification.

The upgrading of the qualifications of unqualified and insufficiently qualified teachers will in future be possible by

- attending full-time one year specialization courses or by
- following a part-time two-year specialization course which will consist of

  * vacation courses
  * correspondence assignments
  * follow up visits to schools for a practical evaluation of the teacher's performance in the classroom.

3.3 PROBLEMS PRESENTLY EXPERIENCED WITH THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

3.3.1 Managerial problems

3.3.1.1 The selection of teachers to attend in-service courses is presenting certain problems. Often teachers not involved in teaching a subject are nominated by principals to attend a course in such a subject. One of the reasons for this situation is that it is impossible to find suitable replacements for teachers teaching certain subjects.

3.3.1.2 The withdrawal of teachers from their classrooms to attend centralized courses, often leads to disciplinary problems in schools.

3.3.1.3 Follow-up on courses attended is unsatisfactory due to

- the large number of teachers involved and the wide geographical area covered;
- situations arising which at times make secondary schools inaccessible, and
- insufficient numbers of educational advisers to visit schools regularly.

3.3.1.4 There is a need for greater co-ordination of in-service activities within the private sector so as to ensure effective support for the macro-planning and control of such activities.

3.3.1.5 With the exception of the specialization courses, in-service training at present does not lead to a higher or further qualification for salary improvement purposes.

3.3.1.6 The way in which courses are structured and compiled have presented problems. The medium of instruction used during in-service courses is either a second or third language for teachers attending these courses. Often teachers are not exposed to the daily use of the medium of instruction other than in the classroom and this inhibits their command of formal language patterns. This problem is aggravated when no provision is made for teachers to practice subject terminology before starting formal course material. Due to a poor command of the medium of instruction teachers often misinterpret the subject content with the result that facts are incorrectly conveyed to their pupils. Poor command of the medium of instruction has a detrimental effect on the possible success of the in-service course.

3.4 POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

3.4.1 The establishment of an infra- and control-structure for the planning and control of in-service and further training of teachers within the Department. This includes additional staff in the

various regions to control e.g. the selection of teachers to attend in-service courses.

3.4.2 The decentralising of in-service training by establishing teachers' centres in the various regions and eventually in each of the 59 inspectoral circuits. This will mean that in-service training will mainly take place during afternoons, week-ends and school vacations so that teachers will not have to be withdrawn from their classrooms.

3.4.3 Extension of the number of specialization courses as part of the further training programme. The courses will be offered as full-time and part-time courses. This will provide the opportunity for a greater number of teachers to improve their qualifications and at the same time to qualify for a salary increase.

3.4.4 The inclusion of a language development component in each in-service course.

3.5 IN-SERVICE COURSES PRESENTLY OFFERED BY THE DEPARTMENT

3.5.1 + 8 000 teachers attended in-service courses at the College for Continuing Training during 1985. During 1986 this number will be raised to 11 000. To date the majority of the courses were offered in the secondary educational phase. As from 1986, courses for primary teachers have been included in the course programme. In addition to this, courses are run in the regions by educational advisers on an ongoing basis.

3.5.2 The use of technology plays an important role in courses offered at the College for Continuing Training.

3.5.2.1 Since January 1985 a TOAM system has been used in the in-service training of teachers involved in the teaching of Mathematics in the senior primary phase. At present six similar systems are being used to train students at Teachers' Colleges. During 1986 + 1 900 primary teachers who attend courses at the College for Continuing

Training will be trained with this computer system.

3.5.2.2 To date all teachers visiting the College for Continuing Training have completed a short course on a Commodore Computer network. As from April of this year (1986) teachers from primary schools will be working through various programmes on the Commodore network (32 units).

3.5.2.3 The language laboratory at the College for Continuing Training is used in all language courses offered. (Afrikaans, English, Tsonga, Xhosa, Zulu, Setswana, North and South Sotho).

3.5.2.4 Audio-cassettes on set work books are duplicated at the College and made available to teachers (+ 4 000 annually).

3.5.2.5 A modern well-equipped Video and Micro-teaching Centre will be in use as from April 1986. Visiting teachers will be making use of this facility on an on-going basis. Educational video are also used during in-service courses. The latter will be used even more extensively as soon as the agreement with the SABC comes into effect on 1 April 1986 for the development of educational video-programmes.

3.5.3 A major programme to upgrade the standard of tuition in classrooms was launched in January 1986. This project is called Operation Alpha.

3.5.3.1 By utilizing an inter-active video system (IVIS) the Department hopes to enable its teachers to increase the level of their performance in the classroom within a relatively short period of time. The utilization of an IVIS computer system in the in-service training of teachers in Mathematics in the senior secondary phase will be evaluated in collaboration with the Human Sciences Research Council. Results obtained from this evaluation will determine whether programmes will be developed in other subjects.

3.5.3.2 Competency-based courses, developed on a modular system, are also being used at present. Should this approach prove to be success-

ful, it could be extended to the initial training of teachers in the future. Evaluation of this approach will be done in collaboration with the HSRC.

3.5.3.3 At present, research is also being done on the possibility of compiling courses based on IVIS and competency-based learning approaches. These courses will be offered on a part-time basis and will lead to a further qualification.

3.5.4 The Department trusts that results derived from these experiments will enable it to develop a system for the in-service and further training of its teachers.

3.5.4.1 By extending the number of specialization courses offered at present, and by introducing a Further Teachers' Certificate which will be offered on a full- or part-time basis at the College for Continuing Training and eight other Teacher Training Colleges it will be possible to assist + 5 000 teachers to improve their qualifications annually. In this way + 25 000 teachers will be able to improve their qualifications over a period of 5 years. This presents + 60 % of the total number of insufficiently qualified teachers.

3.5.4.2 The development of decentralized teachers' centres can make a meaningful contribution towards encouraging in-service teachers to become involved in their own professional development.

3.5.4.3 The Department has already established a sound working platform with various concerns from the private sector to satisfy the needs of the teachers. The advantages to be derived from such a situation should receive all the support it deserves. It has therefore been decided to arrange a meeting with the private sector so as to establish a structured basis on which a liaison can be built.

3.5.5 In closing, it should be noted that the ongoing professional development of its teachers is a priority with the Department. By exposing its teachers to a life long experience of in-service

training, the Department hopes to retain the service of these teachers. Thus the Department will provide teachers for schools which will enable each and every pupil to develop his or her potential to the full.

COMMENTARY

COMMENTARY: CONFERENCE: THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN BLACK EDUCATION

OPENING SESSION

The conference members were welcomed by Professor Kroes on behalf of the Work Committee: Language in Education and Training. He thanked them for their presence and expressed the hope that the conference would be of great significance to language teaching and other language-related aspects in Black education.

WELCOME

Dr J.G. Garbers
President, HSRC

Dr Garbers welcomed the members of the conference particularly, as they were persons concerned with Black education who had the interests of children at heart. They were a very special group of people who were not only interested and involved in education as such, but also in language - one of the most dynamic of human phenomena.

Language provided the most diversified insight into man's being and through language he gave expression to his thoughts, emotions and values, to his close relationship with himself, his world and the way in which he related to it, to his relations with his fellow man and to what troubled him.

The converse of all these possibilities embodied in language, was, for example, the non-realization of potential, lack of adequate communication, frustration and the sense of failure experienced by children with language disabilities. These disabilities led to uncompromising relations with others, and language with its vast potential for adaptability was reduced to a stark system of Science that undermined intellectual achievement.

Against this background, Dr Garbers commended the way in which the Work Committee: Language in education and training had structured the conference, ensuring that such a wide variety of topics was included in

the programme. Considering the wide perspective and bearing in mind the knowledge and expertise of the conference members as a group and therefore how much they could contribute towards a discussion of the matter, which was undoubtedly a pre-condition for effective education, he wished the delegates a very fruitful conference.

Dr Garbers stressed that language and language medium together constituted one of the most important subtle conditions for establishing the necessary standard of education in South Africa.

It was very difficult fully to appreciate the consequences of the fact that in Black education the fifth school year was marked by a switch to either English or Afrikaans as medium of instruction. Neither were the consequences of the heavy load of languages in the curriculum of so many children fully appreciated. Educationists were indeed facing a very complex problem and challenge, and the co-operation of every specialist was needed in order to find the best solution to the problem.

That called for a very special partnership. In the educational field, particularly, it was necessary to tap the expertise of the practitioners, namely the teachers, in an effort to find solutions to practical educational problems and to implement such solutions in the schools. Dr Garbers hoped therefore that the delegates would all learn from one another and that a unique and creative partnership between teachers, lecturers and researchers would be established during the conference.

Dr Garbers commented that at the present juncture of South African history virtually every aspect of life had been politicized, particularly education. Political unrest and polarization did, however, not provide the fertile earth in which a vulnerable plant such as education could grow and flourish. Despite impressive efforts to improve Black education, it was quite clear from the products yielded by that system that all was not well with the fruit borne by the tender plant.

From a political point of view, he stated that one could perhaps understand the cries: "Reform first, education later" and "sacrifice this generation of pupils to the political ideal". From an educa-

tional point of view, however, such cries could have fatal consequences. History had taught us what the implications were for education, for example the educational consequences of the Chinese cultural revolution.

The popular belief existed that all the ills of society could be cured by means of the formal education system. That was, however, not true and reflected a misconception of the nature of formal education. Formal education was not easily made compatible with political and ideological ideals. Such aims could be attained more easily by non-formal and informal education. Formal education was easily disrupted when one expected it to deliver that which it could not. Later it was extremely difficult to bring education back to its original standards.

Dr Garbers also wished to place the conference in context by referring to the progress that had been made since publication of the De Lange Education report in 1981.

While he did not wish to comment on everything that had occurred since then, he was aware of the confusion among the public as well as many teachers regarding the present situation. This only served to illustrate the complexity of education.

He stressed, however, that a great deal of research had been done since that report, still under the leadership of Professor De Lange. Pointing out the wide area covered in continuing research by the HSRC, he stressed that this conference had to be seen in terms of the broad system of education. It had to be realized that work had to be done at various levels and not just one.

In conclusion Dr Garbers wished the chairman a very successful conference and assured him that the HSRC would consolidate the results of the conference to the best of its ability and would sincerely endeavour to process them.

DISCUSSION

SESSION 1

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

With reference to Professor Mawasha's paper and specifically to the concepts information gap and the dissemination of information, a delegate asked what recommendations could be made to ensure that research results and works on modern approaches to teaching English, etc, would reach the persons who really needed that information.

According to Professor Mawasha, the question touched the very point he had wanted to make in his paper, namely, that aspects which had a bearing on underachievement, other than the problem of the second language (where English was used as a medium of instruction), had not been given enough attention. While he could not answer the above-mentioned question, he hoped that the conference would do so.

Professor Mawasha was asked to comment on the existing situation regarding the transition to English medium which was taking place in Standard 3, while in previous years it had happened at a much later stage.

The question could be answered on two levels: firstly, based on the fact (mentioned earlier) that Black education was entangled in English because English was regarded as power. If one tampered with English, therefore, people would experience it in their minds as tampering with their instrument for acquiring power.

The second level concerned methodology and the type of materials that were used. The question should therefore be whether effective methods were used to introduce a child to a second language and enable the child

to cope with the content of it, and whether the type of materials helped to generate thinking in a second language.

A delegate wanted to know whether the language used by the children after school did not affect their growth in the proficiency of English as a medium/language.

According to Professor Mawasha the home environment was not always supportive to the use of English, either as medium of learning or as medium of communication. A language policy would have to be worked out that would ensure that children were more exposed to English, both at home and at school, than was the case at that moment. If they became more proficient in English, they would use it more often.

In reaction to Professor Mawasha's statement that it was mischievous to say that Black people were inherently incapable of learning and mastering English, a delegate pointed out that people who did not grow up in a language, speaking it constantly in their environment, almost never mastered it as well as its mother tongue speakers. There was therefore no substitute for a proper language environment outside the classroom. From that the speaker drew the conclusion that in the present situation, with English as second language medium, it was necessary to settle for a much more modest return than in schools where a first language medium was used. This could eventually lead to two kinds of schools in South Africa, namely those that employed a second language medium and those that had English/Afrikaans as first language media.

Referring back to his own statement, Professor Mawasha said that it was in fact possible to master a second language. Practically all the educated Blacks in South Africa today, for example, had studied through the medium of English. Some students who studied overseas sometimes even performed better than American students. The critical factors, however, remained the manner in which the language was taught and the type of materials that were used in support of the methods used.

Referring to the first question that had been asked, a delegate suggested that the inquirer had made a plea for greater co-ordination of research

in that area as well as a more effective dissemination of research results, and that the idea should have been followed up.

A clearing house of some sort would be ideal to draw together the background information necessary for research. Part of the problem was due to the ideological differences between people involved in such projects - it seemed as though they did not want to share with others. Professor Young identified that as a crucial problem and added that massive waste of resources took place as a result.

Concerning the question of transition, a delegate commented that the transition to English as a medium of instruction had not really occurred in his area until Std 8. That pointed to the enormity of the problems in that regard. Maybe some less abrupt transition had to be contemplated, similar to that in the Russian foreign language medium schools where only a few subjects were changed at a time while the others were retained in the mother tongue.

Concerning the issue of bilingual education, a delegate proposed that content subjects could be taught in English but those pupils who could not cope could be taught in their mother tongue. When the examination implications were taken into consideration, however, this would mean that there would have to be examinations in English as well as in the various African languages, which would be an enormous task.

Another implication of the above proposal was that students who were conversant with both content and concepts, because they were taught through their mother tongue, would be produced. The question of English as a language would however still remain - English would be needed in other situations outside the school.

A delegate asked Professor Mawasha to comment on mother tongue instruction and referred to the example of Afrikaans in this regard - a language which had been a low-function language 50 years ago, but the status of which was raised by the Afrikaners themselves. The speaker suggested that the same should be done with the Black languages in order to equip them as media of instruction and thus avoid all the problems mentioned earlier.

In response Professor Mawasha said that, firstly, the medium of instruction was decided on by those who were in power. Secondly, it would be logistically impossible because of the variety of Black languages used in South Africa. Thirdly, Prof. Mawasha argued that the day Black languages were raised to the same level as Afrikaans and English, South Africa as it was known on that day would cease to exist because the result would be a modern Babel. The fact that Blacks had adopted Afrikaans and English as official languages made communication in South Africa possible.

A question put particularly to Prof. Young concerned the fact that the textbooks that were used at Standard 3 level were written in English that was unintelligible to pupils who had just made the transfer to the new medium. The question remained, therefore, how to get the message across to the writers and publishers of textbooks that much remained to be done in that regard, and furthermore, what agency could be used to make writers in other disciplines aware of the problem.

According to Prof. Young, there was a definite need for closer liaison with editors and publishers in order to get clarity about readability and what constituted a good text at that level. An analysis would help to clear up the matter, as had been done at UCT in connection with Science textbooks. It seemed as though there was a dearth of textbook writers who were really concerned with the readability and interest of their textbooks. Before the above-mentioned question could be answered, the approach to the function of the textbook in the classroom should first be changed.

In further reaction to the question of the readability of textbooks, a delegate reported that some research had been done through the University of the Witwatersrand, looking at the readability of small sections of textbooks which were used by students at Standard 8 level. It was found that they were written at a level beyond the ability of Black adult students who were using them, but also beyond the level of White pupils who were using the same textbooks in the schools.

The question was asked whether student teachers received tuition in text evaluation.

In response Professor Mawasha said that he did teach handbook evaluation in his department at the University of the North. He did, however, not know what the position was at other universities and colleges of education.

Although the most important factor concerning the medium of instruction was the quality of the teacher in the classroom, the question was raised as to whether the upgrading of teachers would somehow better the situation.

Although Professor Mawasha believed that it was a problematic strategy, it could be tried out in order to achieve that objective. The critical factor remained, however, that the teachers themselves should decide what they were going to do about it, because in raising an issue such as the above, the teachers in fact pointed to themselves.

Concerning the interference of Afrikaans in the learning of English and the fact that Black pupils still had to learn Afrikaans in order to get employment, a delegate asked Professor Mawasha what his views were on the issue.

Professor Mawasha stated that he did not approve of the simultaneous teaching of English and Afrikaans, because it confused the pupils. There was definite room for improvement in that matter.

If a language were to be taught as a means of communication, a delegate wanted to know whether it would have been unreasonable to expect a government to hold a referendum in order to give the people in that particular country a chance to decide what language they would like to use thus avoiding problems such as the transition to a new medium of instruction.

In reaction Professor Mawasha stated that education reports showed a definite pattern in terms of language preference. The fact was that

Black 'users' preferred a second language. Holding a referendum was, however, going to be very tricky.

In response to Professor Young's earlier statements concerning the readability of textbooks, a delegate who was also a publisher proposed to give the publisher's viewpoint on that matter.

The delegate agreed with Professor Young that few writers of textbooks were really good writers. One of the reasons for this was that there was no training in how to write at the majority of educational institutions, and in addition there was an inability on the part of authors to assess what they had written with any kind of objectivity.

Secondly, the publisher was faced with the impossible task of coping with the demands of a new syllabus and was expected, for example, to produce four consecutive textbooks for Standards 7, 8, 9 and 10 in the space of approximately two years or less. They had to be written, put into manuscript form, submitted to the Department of Education, after which alterations had to be incorporated, the books had to be printed and maybe not ordered in the end.

Thirdly, there was an almost complete lack of feedback to the writers and publishers of textbooks from those who were using them.

Text evaluation was something that should be built into all kinds of teacher training - publishers would welcome and support such a development.

In response, Professor Young enquired whether there would be a willingness among publishers to work with educationists if they were invited to do so, upon which the delegate stressed that while he could not speak for everybody, from his side there would definitely be a willingness to do so.

A proposal was made by a delegate that the conference should request the HSRC to hold a conference to which all publishers would be invited, as well as skilled textbook writers and speakers like Professor Lanham who

felt that certain criteria should be followed in writing textbooks. The speaker asked the conference's permission to pass the proposal as a formal motion. This was agreed.

A delegate pointed out that Maskew Miller Longman had a book about readability, written by Ray Williams, which they gave to their editors.

Secondly, the delegate pointed out that recent Senior certificate English results in Lebowa showed that 79 % of the pupils had passed. The distribution of the results showed, however, that nobody got an A while nearly everybody got an E or F symbol. The fact that pupils got E's and F's in English as a subject explained the general poor results and indicated that there was something terribly wrong somewhere.

A delegate wished to make the following statements about Black education:

- The curriculum was loaded with language subjects - half of them foreign.
- From the discussion it seemed that everyone agreed that Blacks preferred English as a medium of instruction, but did the authorities also accept that fact?
- Instruction in English as a second language should be started as early as possible.
- English was an international language that was used worldwide as a medium of instruction and no longer belonged to the British exclusively.
- It was high time that Blacks were encouraged and trained to do research and publish books, because they knew their own circumstances best.

A delegate wanted to know whether people in other countries where English was used as medium of instruction experienced the same problems as Blacks did in South Africa.

Professor Mawasha answered in the affirmative and said that the situation in other African countries was often similar to that experienced in South Africa.

According to a delegate the problem in Black education concerning English as second language was actually the question of when that medium should be introduced.

Another issue was the introduction of a third language, namely Afrikaans, too soon after the introduction of the second language.

A question addressed to Professor Mawasha was whether he thought that open schools with English First Language or Second Language would offer some solution to the problem of language environments.

Professor Mawasha did not believe that open schools would be a solution because it was logistically impossible when one looked at the number of Blacks and the existing number of English medium schools. The idea of exposure to English was however a very useful one.

A delegate from VISTA University told the conference what was being done at Vista University in the introduction of teacher trainees to language across the curriculum. All their teacher trainees had to take a course in language across the curriculum. While they grasped the basic socio-linguistic issues very readily, the lack of background in language studies very soon caused problems. The question was, therefore, in what way could it be made possible to give students the necessary background in the short time available.

In response, Professor Young pleaded that some of the formality should be taken out of English instruction because formal English was rarely transferable to real life situations where contact with English speakers occurred. The attitude to and purpose of language learning in South Africa should be revised and then defined.

A question directed at Professor Mawasha stated that language proficiency was obviously the crux of the matter and that it seemed to depend on the cognitive structures that were brought to bear on language. The question was, therefore, how the cultural gap that was so obvious in conceptual

structures in the classroom could be closed in order to achieve language proficiency.

In response, Professor Mawasha stated that he could not provide an answer to the problem because he had not done research into that particular issue. But speaking without any research backing, he stated that he did not agree with the belief that there was a problem regarding cultural differences. He asked whether a problem with, for example, comprehension did not actually point to the way the lesson was presented or inappropriate materials used in class, which immediately brought one back to the question of methodology and language materials.

SESSION 2

THE ENVIRONMENT INSIDE THE SCHOOL
THE ENVIRONMENT OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL

In reference to Professor Mawasha's paper delivered in the previous session, a delegate commented that he had previously mentioned the problem of the environment outside the school - this was a theme Ms Malefo discussed in her paper. The question remained what recommendations and suggestions could be made to improve the situation.

The delegate suggested that if enough books, literature and readers were provided for the pupils, the problems would be partly solved. Readers could be taken home and parents would then be involved in their children's education.

Dr Odendaal agreed with the above suggestion but felt that the communication gap was between the pupils (who did not understand) and the teachers (who taught but did not reach, or who could not teach on the level of understanding of, the pupils). This problem could be approached from two levels: one could either try to improve the level of understanding of the pupils, or the proficiency of the teachers could be upgraded so that they would be able to simplify adequately and teach at

the level of the pupils.

A comment on the same issue implied that the problem revolved around the child's background. According to the speaker, education matters should not be decided by politicians. Educators should come together to solve problems. Furthermore, facilities like libraries, playgrounds, etc should be provided by town planners in order to make education possible, not only for Black children, but for all children - Black and White.

In support of the above-mentioned points, a delegate remarked that enough books and libraries should be provided for Black pupils; all existing libraries should be opened for all races, every school should have had a library and every Black community should have one or more libraries. Libraries/books could compensate to some extent for the unfavourable circumstances outside the school. Children should begin to read and should become involved in the world of books, magazines and newspapers.

Ms Malefo thanked the last speaker for the fact that he had mentioned 'compensation' as a way to bridge the gap between a child's earliest years and the time when he had to start learning a second language.

A delegate remarked that the cheapest and most practical way of improving English among Black children might be to use the mass media - nearly 90 % of Blacks had radios, for example.

Ms Malefo commented that the previous speaker had referred to the urban situation, but in the rural situation mass media were not generally available.

A speaker proposed that the heart of the matter lay within language systems which were well developed within the school system. Bophuthatswana had, for example, attained considerable success in introducing most effective systems in their schools up to Standard 4. These systems had radiated to the families of the pupils and very often apathy had been replaced with enthusiastic support from parents. Such systems had to be studied in

order to transfer them to one's own situation. It was not always necessary to develop new systems - those that really worked locally should rather be used.

Ms Malefo responded by saying that the PEUP (Primary Education Upgrading Project) was a success in Bophuthatswana but one was still faced with the problem that there was no provision for pupils after Standard 4. Another problem was that the PEUP had made a breakthrough to mother tongue literacy, but a breakthrough to English as second language was still needed. The model was definitely a success and it was available for anyone who was interested.

A delegate proposed that teachers should try to see what they themselves could do to better the situation in the classrooms. If any of the above proposals were to work, the classrooms had to change, because many of the projects mentioned had implicit in them a shift from the teacher-centred classroom to the learner-centred classroom. Teachers should start managing activities in a classroom in such a way that the learners could start working and enquiring on their own.

Dr Odendaal enquired whether the previous speaker had suggested that the teacher's abilities should be improved and that the teacher should then implement pupil-centred teaching so that the point of intervention was her abilities as a teacher.

The speaker confirmed that he had in fact pointed to the teacher's abilities as a teacher, but not as a language teacher.

Referring to a statement made in an earlier session, which referred to teachers clinging desperately to the textbook and using it as a crutch to fall back on, Mrs Malefo wanted to know what could replace the textbook once it was removed, bearing in mind that the teacher would be very insecure in the period of transition if that should happen.

In an attempt to try and summarize all the points that had been made, a delegate suggested a change of emphasis from teaching language to learning language.

A delegate asked Dr Odendaal about the intrinsic factors inhibiting the teacher, for example personal motivation. Did teachers try their best - were they interested in the future of the child or was their only concern the salary at the end of the month? Should the creativity and motivation of the teacher not have played a bigger role in salary adjustments and promotion?

In response, Dr Odendaal reported that her main impression of the teachers in KwaZulu was that they had to fight against overwhelming obstacles. Bearing in mind the distressing circumstances under which they had to work, it was a miracle that they continued their work in such a positive and motivated manner. The crucial matter was, however, that unless there was communication between the teacher and the pupil, no teaching took place.

In response to the issue of the environment inside the school, a delegate pointed out that the problem was that the teachers and principal of a school were not given the opportunity of being involved in the selection of requirements for improvement in the school. If the situation were changed, the problem of surpluses at certain schools would be avoided because each school would be issued with its own requirements.

In a further response regarding the environment inside the school, a delegate wanted to pull together some of the strands. The starting point was the pupil-centred approach. If that was a given, the next step would be the control of pupil-centred learning, meaning that the control of what happened in the classroom had to involve the teacher, the parent and the immediate community. Thereafter, in relation to the infrastructural support, inspectors should change to subject advisers, and curriculum planners should start listening to what the people wanted. The whole school system should be turned upside down, starting with the child, then the teacher, etc and finally also the education authorities, who were actually there to serve the school and not dictate to it.

A delegate wanted to appeal as a practising teacher to the administration not to "promote" the articulate and proficient classroom teacher from the

classroom situation to administrative posts.

Ms Malefo thanked the previous speaker for raising the issue. She also pointed out that in Bophuthatswana a scale had been worked out so that a good teacher could be assessed in terms of remuneration in order to keep her in the classroom.

In response to the above issue, a delegate said that he was worried about not promoting articulate teachers to the rank of inspector. He thought it might be worse if inferior teachers were to become inspectors.

The teachers who really caused concern were those who were not particularly good, because they were by far the majority. They were part of the unsolvable problems discussed earlier. In addition, the delegate mentioned a number of problems he also regarded as unsolvable:

1. English as medium of instruction from Standard 3 onwards, because it simply did not happen in practice.
2. Professional linguists and textbook writers should come together to provide guidelines for textbook writing. Linguists and not syllabus committees should choose the textbooks.
3. The upgrading of teachers.

A possible solution to some of those problems as suggested by the delegate was the provision of libraries.

In response Dr Odendaal said that everything was not as depressing as the previous speaker had implied and that she was sure that there was a remedy. The human factor (that is the teachers) was the one factor one could count on that would change. There were ways of accelerated language teaching today which produced phenomenal results, for example suggestopaedia, which changed attitudes and produced language acquisition that was astounding.

Dr Odendaal did not believe that materials by themselves were enough. One needed to work with the human factor as well; therefore the teachers themselves were the variable which could be addressed with success. The Bophuthatswana project was one example of how the system could be

improved in order to create an environment for effective learning.

In conclusion, the chairman commented that in the field of language and especially in the field of decisions about the medium of instruction, history was against anyone who wanted politicians out of education. To his knowledge, there was no country in the world where fundamental policy decisions had been taken by educationists. Educationists could give advice, but policy decisions were made by politicians, Black or White. Unfortunately one had no choice but to live with this reality.

SESSION 3
SYLLABUSES

Questions on Prof. Ridge's paper

Addressing Prof. Ridge a delegate enquired whether he would give the audience a few ideas on the formal evaluation of communicative competence, with reference to national examinations.

The precise circumstances under which a person for example wrote a letter had to be specified in the question and then the teacher had to judge whether the result was appropriate in the context; for example, in a question requiring a friendly letter to an aunt, the circumstances and the relationship between the writer and the receiver would have to be given.

A delegate wanted to know what the basis was for eliciting the manuscripts of new sourcebooks, handbooks and materials accompanying new syllabuses and to what extent teachers were involved in the formal evaluation of such materials before publication.

According to Prof. Ridge, that question would need to be answered by the publisher. At the moment it was up to the publisher to elicit manuscripts. One of the problems in that regard was the shortness of

time between the point at which a new syllabus became available and the point at which a new textbook was going to be needed.

A delegate commented that the new syllabuses were impossible to implement because of the problems that had been isolated in the previous session. She proposed that one should move away from the confines of the syllabus in order to meet people's needs and to introduce the idea of independent learning. In that way one could get to the idea of learning languages for specific purposes.

Prof. Ridge did not agree that the implementation of the new syllabus was impossible, because everyone who was going to use the language somehow had to make his way through the syllabus.

Prof. Ridge was asked to elaborate on what he meant by saying that grammar should be forbidden in the classroom except for where it was practical.

According to Prof. Ridge, a teacher had to be sure of what he was doing when he used up class time for a grammar lesson. The technical knowledge had to meet a particular need that the pupils had in using the language at that moment.

A delegate commented on the assumption that the syllabus communicated directly with the teacher by saying that it was not true: syllabuses were in fact written for those who produced textbooks, because teachers worked from the textbooks and did not go back to the syllabus.

A delegate commented that while new syllabuses had been written for the pupils, there seemed to be no new syllabuses for teacher training.

Questions on Mr Strydom's paper

A delegate who had JMB experience said that despite everything that had been mentioned earlier, examinations still played a major part. He asked for a proposal that would persuade all the examiners at matric level to prepare papers which would reflect the emphasis and approach incorporated

in the new syllabuses, in order to lessen exam-orientation.
A delegate, referring to the type of practical examination mentioned by the previous speaker, enquired as to how teachers were going to be prepared for the new kind of examination paper.

Secondly, he wanted to know what was going to happen to verbal proficiency in language teaching, because the new syllabus mentioned only a non-verbal, communicative approach.

In response to the second question, Mr Strydom stated that in his opinion an examination paper for Afrikaans would not be without grammatical elements.

In response to the first question, Mr Coetzee of the Department of Education and Training said that a "model" paper would be prepared beforehand which summed up all the ideas mentioned earlier and which would be circulated to all teachers in South Africa. These "model" papers would cover Afrikaans literature as well as Afrikaans grammar and written work. He added that the department was seriously endeavouring to have oral marks included in the subject aggregate in the matric examination.

Mr Strydom hoped that the "model" papers would reach the schools well in advance because without them the in-service training sessions would be fruitless.

Questions on Prof. Snyman's paper

A delegate stated that he was very concerned about the change in the syllabuses. The scope of any in-service training programme would have to change in order to cope with such fundamental changes in the type of syllabus that was now being put in front of the teacher. This whole new approach to language teaching could not be achieved unless in-service education took place with the teachers in their work-milieu and was backed up by a tremendous lot of support day by day. This could not be done with a few centralized courses.

A hard look should have been taken at the seriousness of what was being proposed and at how much education departments were saying they were going to do in that year. Unless the issue was taken seriously, the teachers were being treated unfairly. It was essential that in-service training be decentralized as suggested above.

In a comment concerning the new, separate syllabuses for Black languages, a delegate voiced his concern about them. He hoped that the Nguni-language group and the Sotho languages, for example, were grouped together because they were still culturally so closely related that they could hardly be broken up into smaller groupings.

Prof. Snyman assured the speaker that there was an individual syllabus for each language. The final syllabus in each case was specifically drafted by a committee consisting of mother tongue speakers.

A delegate enquired whether something had been done to maintain uniformity of standard in all the languages in the examination.

Prof. Snyman answered that the JMB was to be replaced by some other body in the future. But for the time being it still ran the drafting of syllabuses the way it had been run previously. There was a number of advisers as well as panels of moderators and examiners who saw to the maintenance of comparable standards among the various languages. Nothing had changed as far as the administrative side was concerned. The only change was the new, much more detailed syllabuses, based mainly on the previous content but individualized for each language.

A delegate wanted to know whether the medium of instruction in the teaching of the new syllabuses for African languages was still foreign.

Prof. Snyman answered that the medium of instruction remained as before, for example, Suswana was taught in Seswana.

A delegate enquired from the audience whether anyone shared her bewilderment because of the fact that the discussion of education had taken place as if there were no context to the issues that had been

discussed.

In response to the above-mentioned comment, Prof. Kroes declared on behalf of the organising committee that the committee had no intention of inhibiting any discussion which was found relevant to the purpose of getting together. If it was felt that any such "deeper" issues should have been addressed, then that had to come from the conference itself. He urged the conference, however, to work toward solutions and suggestions in mainly two areas:

1. Ideas for research priorities
2. Implementation of ideas.

SESSION 4
METHODOLOGY

A question directed at Prof. Nokaneng enquired what the best approach to the teaching of African languages was - should African languages be taught through the medium of Afrikaans/English or through the medium of the mother tongue. If Northern Sotho was, for example, taught through the medium of Northern Sotho, the language was supposedly downgraded, and if it was taught through the medium of English/ Afrikaans, the language was upgraded.

According to Prof. Nokaneng, that was a very controversial point. At certain universities, the medium of instruction was the mother tongue and it had proved to be a success (e.g. the University of Bophuthatswana). At other universities, some aspects were taught in the specific African language, while Methodology was, for instance, presented in English. In the case of teacher training colleges, the problem became very acute because it was difficult to express phenomenological or methodological concepts in, for example, Northern Sotho.

On the above-mentioned issue, a delegate commented that students at the University of Fort Hare were frustrated because of the fact that they

received tuition in African languages in English but had to teach the specific language at secondary school level in the mother tongue. A further bone of contention was that students were taught methodology through the medium of the specific language, after three years of having studied in English. The department of African languages had then for some time taught through the media of the languages themselves, which had resulted in students being more capable of teaching at secondary school level than they had been before. This had since changed.

A delegate pointed out that the fundamental issue which had to be addressed was the issue of the motivation of the learner to learn English or any language. This linked up with the authoritarian style of teaching in the classroom, which resulted in a form of total control from the top downward which again resulted in a build-up of anger in the pupils, as well as other side effects. According to the speaker there should be some sort of a needs analysis in order to consult pupils, but all decisions regarding the content of syllabuses, examinations, etc were taken from the top. Pupils, the users of the syllabuses, felt powerless because they were not consulted on the process of education; they wanted some say in the curriculum, methods that were used, etc. The speaker felt that the above issue should be addressed because it was a fundamental problem that related directly to the motivation of pupils.

A delegate commented on Prof. Kroes' request for suggestions for research and implementation by saying that nothing could be implemented in schools where there were no pupils. Regarding the needs analysis referred to by the previous speaker, the delegate said that the SPCC conference that had been held the previous year, had already outlined quite clearly what students had perceived as their needs. What was interesting was that those needs were tied to political needs as well, and not simply educational needs. The speaker felt that it was fruitless to talk about syllabuses and methodologies when Black education was faced with massive school boycotts at the end of March.

Responding to the second last speaker, Mr Rodseth said that the Molteno project reflected the truth of what the delegate was saying. The project was successful because a substantial shift from teacher-centred to

pupil-centred education was effected. Some of the results of the changed system had been:

1. Teachers had been able to go through the critical change and to extract pleasure and benefit from it.

2. Pupils had started to come to school more regularly because school had become interesting.

3. The rate of learning had accelerated.

4. Corporal punishment had been superseded by good teaching methods.

Mrs Van der Merwe said that, from an educational and methodological point of view, experience was that the teacher was very authoritarian in class so that pupils were inhibited and frustrated. From a practical point of view, the idea of learner-centred education would have to be stressed more at teacher training colleges and in in-service training. The starting point would have to be the teachers.

A delegate commented that he supported both Mr Rodseth and Mrs Van der Merwe, but urged that one should not lose sight of the macro-political implications of what the previous speakers had said. There had to be a multi-faceted, holistic approach to problem solving in the country. Improved teacher training and encouraging breakthroughs would not be the sole strategies in solving the problems. What was needed was that people should support the SPCC and other public initiatives; healing had to come from both above and within.

A delegate commented that it had been said that teachers who had studied through the medium of English at universities could not teach through their own vernacular because they had been learning in English. The above gave rise to many misconceptions. At university, students were taught a scholastic approach to their own language in order to communicate internationally with other authorities about any language, against the background of linguistics. The delegate concluded that it

made sense to learn any language in the medium that incorporated all the technical terms of linguistics.

A question addressed to the participants concerned the new, communicative approach to language teaching. The delegate wanted to know from people who were in the profession how well they (the teachers) understood that approach, how successful they thought it would be in school and whether teachers could cope with it.

In response to the above question, a delegate said that guidance in instructing student teachers in the new approach would be appreciated and that one needed to make a thorough study of it before any attempt was made at implementation.

A further comment regarding the above issue concerned a paper written by Rod Ellis in 1984. The content of the paper supported what had been said earlier, namely, that in an authoritarian situation, a communicative approach could not work.

A delegate commented that the theme of methodology had been lost completely in the course of the discussion. The delegate maintained, however, that in the instruction of either first or second language student teachers, one had to go through three levels, namely

1. communication,
2. academic knowledge,
3. methodology.

No teacher should teach if he was not competent enough to communicate in the language he was supposed to teach, or should he not have academic knowledge or methodological background. These three levels went together - the one backed up the other, whether one was a first or a second language speaker. Being a teacher was something very different from being a communicator.

SESSION 5

TEACHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING

On Mrs Webb's paper

A delegate stated that she supported Mrs Webb's proposal that teachers should be screened before they started teaching. The teachers who failed should, however, not be lost to the profession, but should be given an additional course to upgrade them. In the past, teacher training had been for those who could not make it in other fields. It was high time that educationists made student teachers aware that teachers were intelligent, competent people who were worthy models for their students.

Concerning the functional, communicative approach to language teaching, a delegate proposed that additional training should be provided for teachers before any new syllabus was implemented, because it was difficult to move away from old traditions.

On the issue of an entrance exam inaction to establish the level of language proficiency, mentioned in a previous session, the delegate stated that such an exam had been provided by the DET, but that it was more structurally oriented than communication oriented. A gap existed between the student's theoretical and practical knowledge of the language. Such an exam should be in keeping with the approach in the classroom.

The delegate concluded with a request that teachers of the second language should be involved in curriculum design because they were well conversant with the problems in the schools. Some co-ordination could thus have been established.

A delegate asked Mrs Webb what was meant by the term "cultural inhibition" when referring to the learning of a language by Black students.

In response Mrs Webb stated that what she had meant by "cultural inhibition" was that culturally a Black child was not always encouraged

to speak or to voice his opinion or to protest. The same did not, for example, occur in the traditional English household. The Black child was inhibited by the entire social structure not to speak up as freely as perhaps an English child.

On Sarah Murray and Charles Nuttall's paper

A delegate wanted to know whether it was possible to separate examiners and textbook writers in order to achieve good textbooks. According to him, persons involved in curriculum design started writing textbooks for a new curriculum beforehand and thus deprived other potential writers of the opportunity of writing textbooks.

In reaction Mrs Webb said that she had no knowledge of examiners that were textbook writers as well. If what the speaker had suggested had occurred, it was definitely wrong.

A delegate asked Ms Murray whether she approved of asking for students' opinions about the content of their courses and whether that was one of the ways she had suggested in her paper.

Ms Murray answered that the way they proposed that students should participate in the drafting of their courses was through self-evaluation, as well as the students' evaluation of what they had been taught. This feedback had provided the lecturers with ways of changing the course. Thus students had influenced the way the course developed. This had not simply been allowed to happen in an uncontrolled way.

In adding to the above statement, Mr Nuttall said that a lot of the materials they had used in the course would have been classroom language data.

Ms Murray said that at the University of Bophuthatswana the students did a four year B.A.(Ed), which included practice teaching every year during the course, so they had had the opportunity of changing their courses according to student teachers' feedback.

A delegate commented that he was excited about the model Mr Nuttal and Ms Murray had used to illustrate their communicative approach, because if they pursued this model to "develop a capacity to communicate" with their students, they would end up with students who really communicated.

Concerning the issue of 'cultural inhibition' that had been raised earlier on, the delegate said that it was not inherently part of the Black child. The problem was essentially one of methodology and the type of materials that were used. Students should be geared towards communicative competence by the methodology and materials used in class.

A delegate expressed his concern about communication between teacher training institutions and schools. The delegate enquired whether there were programmes to maintain contact between universities, colleges of education, in-service training lecturers and schools, in order to relate the work of training institutions to what was happening in the schools.

Secondly, the delegate said that the communicative approach should not be seen in isolation. This approach would only succeed if all people communicate within their families, society, etc.

<u>On Mr F.J.F. Pelser's paper</u>

A delegate enquired whether Mr Pelser had any suggestions on how the enormous in-service training effort that had been initiated by different organisations could be co-ordinated so that all the efforts could move in the same direction without perhaps confusing the teacher by contradictory ideas.

Mr Pelser said that he did not regard the various in-service projects of different organisations as a threat because of the fact that the need for in-service training was so great. As far as co-ordination was concerned, a structure that would cover in-service training had been established within his department. The idea was that from there different in-service organisations who were willing to help would be approached.

In support of Mr Pelser, a delegate proposed that of all the areas that

needed money, teacher training was the number one priority in the country. He hoped that the conference could put forward a motion to that effect.

Mr Pelser assured the former speaker that teacher training did in fact receive a fair allowance as far as facilities were concerned - two new training colleges were being built in that year and one every following year.

A delegate proposed a motion that the conference should request the HSRC to make urgent representations to Government to lift the excessive taxation on books.

In a question directed at Mr Pelser a delegate enquired how the needs for in-service training courses were established.

In order to answer the previous question, Mr Pelser referred to what had occurred in 1985. Questionnaires had been sent to all secondary schools covering all school subjects, in order to find out what the problems of teachers, over the broad spectrum of teaching, had been. Together with the principal subject advisers, courses had then been designed for 1986.

Apart from evaluating the teachers that came in every week for training, the teachers were also asked to evaluate the lectures so that the course might be improved.

A delegate enquired from Mr Pelser how the effectiveness of the in-service training courses was evaluated, and if it was evaluated, what follow-up procedures were adopted.

According to Mr Pelser, the centralized model which they had been using was unsatisfactory because of the impossibility of carrying out follow-up procedures. The new model which was due to be introduced included centralized and decentralized vacation courses, assignments that had to be handed in, visits by subject advisers to the schools where teachers taught and evaluation by the principals of the specific schools.

A delegate asked whether representatives from different in-service training centres could report about what their specific organisations were doing to create an awareness of 'language across the curriculum' in subject teachers. According to the delegate the colleges and universities themselves should start to make teachers aware of this.

Mrs Webb answered that they had not had any over-all success in that regard but that they had tried on a personal basis to get the idea across by, for example, using textbooks of other subjects in English classes.

Ms Murray reported that they were not doing much in that regard at the University of Bophuthatswana. She asked Mr David Crosby from the University of Zululand to tell the conference what they were doing in the field of 'language across the curriculum'.

According to Mr Crosby, a course based on 'language across the curriculum' was offered as a compulsory course for all students doing teaching diplomas. At Zululand all diplomas were done in the course of a B. Ped. degree, the language was thus incorporated and not offered separately.

A question directed at Mr Pelser enquired in what way teacher training courses were going to be decentralized - whether decentralization would be in the so-called White areas only or over the whole of South Africa.

According to Mr Pelser, he could speak only for the schools which fell under the jurisdiction of the DET. Schools of the independent states, though not directly related to the Department, which had approached the college in the past, had always been welcomed with open arms, without asking questions or money.

With reference to the African languages, a delegate commented that no provision had been made for African languages in in-service training courses. There was also a need for subject advisers in African languages.

Mr Pelser said that at the Soshanguve College there were lecturers in all the African languages except Venda. The college also offered on-going courses in the African languages as in all the other subjects. With

regard to subject advisers, there was a principal subject adviser in Zulu, and identical posts were being advertised at that moment for other African languages. They were thus busy building up the infrastructure to provide the service that they ought to have.

A delegate enquired what criteria were used in appointing in-service personnel. The delegate suggested that such personnel should be appointed as a result of their experience in teaching in the particular subject, and not just as a result of their academic qualifications.

According to Mr Pelser, positions were advertised in the media. Lecturers had to have certain academic qualifications, namely a B. degree plus a diploma; senior lecturers had to have an Honours Degree plus a certain number of years experience. Candidates were evaluated before they were appointed.

A delegate wished to raise a plea for better economic management in the application of teacher resources: the Soweto College of Education had to turn away 900 students in 1986 because there had been no place for them, while the Johannesburg College of Education had only 2 000 students butnot all of these students would eventually find jobs. The delegate stated that the students and lecturers of the JCE felt that they were deprived because they had no contact with other race groups and other colleges of education.

A delegate took the above-mentioned issue further by saying that a Black teachers college was going to be built in Cape Town while the Mowbray Training College for White primary school teachers was two-thirds empty.

Secondly, the delegate responded to what Ms Murray had said on the question of whether teacher training should be carried out at the universities. If it was done at the universities the delegate was of the opinion that teacher training would then be non-racial and the barriers between first and second language would begin to dissolve, because people would interact freely.

A delegate wanted to know what percentage of the South African budget was

being spent on education, whether it was increasing and whether the 'homeland policy' would exclude rural children from the benefits of any increased expenditure on education.

With regard to rural schools, Mr Pelser answered that there was a committee which was to deliver a report to Parliament on the position in rural Black education. The committee had to make recommendations on the removal of disparities between the two systems of rural and urban education.

In answer to the question about the budget, Mr Pelser said that the budget increased yearly.

A delegate stated that Black education could also be called crisis-education. The use of computers and television could not make up for the absence of conventional methods and basic facilities in Black schools.

Mr Pelser pointed out that they used interactive videos and computers in order to train the maximum number of teachers in the shortest time possible. The idea was not to use those systems in the schools, but to use them as an aid to shortening the period of training at the same time as having the maximum effect.

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